

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: THE DESIGN AND VALIDATION OF
A LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM
PROTOTYPE FOR AFRICAN
AMERICAN WOMEN

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The study designed and validated a leadership training program prototype for African American women by examining role modeling and self-efficacy constructs using the direct instruction model. This study was the first to engage federal senior executive service (SES) African American women members in examining leadership skills and competencies. These women also assessed the intrinsic and extrinsic value of fourteen managerial behavior skills.

A modified educational research and development methodology consisting of three phases outlined by Borg and Gall (1989) was used. Phase One included two major activities: (a) needs assessment and (b) design of the prototype workshop. As part of the needs assessment process, a survey-questionnaire was developed which integrated competencies from two studies in the literature. Those results were used

to: (a) determine the prototype workshop topic, and
(b) examine the fourteen managerial behavior skills.

Fifty-four African American women in the SES completed the needs assessment survey-questionnaire and three of them served as project role models. The project role models were interviewed during a video-taped focus-group session. The prototype workshop, a day-long session on "planning and organizing" based on the direct instruction model, was also designed under this phase. A preliminary field-test of the prototype workshop was conducted under Phase Two.

The revised prototype workshop was subjected to a main field-test under Phase Three. Twenty-four African American women at the GS-7 through GS-13 grade levels employed in a federal executive branch agency participated in the main field-test. An independent observer served throughout the study, but was not a participant.

A variety of measurements were used to gather data: needs assessment survey-questionnaire; project role model focus-group interview session; pretest-posttest; prototype workshop evaluation form; interview-questionnaire; an independent observer's evaluation-questionnaire and clinical notes; and post-workshop assignment. The one-group, pretest-posttest

experimental design was employed because no studies existed which examined African American women's leadership training using the direct instruction model. It was therefore hypothesized that distribution of scores on the pretest and posttest measuring "planning and organizing" would differ in their mean at the $p < .05$ level. A Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test was conducted.

Findings show that the model of African American women's leadership as defined by the cluster sampling group embraced transformational leadership attributes. Consistent with the literature was the perception by the project role models that having fewer African American women role models in the workplace affects their leadership development. The needs assessment participants rated the fourteen managerial behavior skills in terms of their level of intrinsic and extrinsic value. "Dealing with racism" held the highest level of intrinsic value. But, unlike other studies, the skill "dealing with sexism" held the lowest level of intrinsic value and was rated the least important managerial behavior skill for leadership development. The skill "problem-solving" held high extrinsic value and "supporting" held low extrinsic value. "Planning and organizing" was rated the most important skill for leadership development

while "dealing with sexism" was rated the least important. Finally, scores on the posttest were higher than scores on the pretest. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test results show that pretest-posttest mean scores differed at the $p < .05$ level. The hypothesis was retained, suggesting usefulness of the direct instruction model for developing the prototype workshop.

THE DESIGN AND VALIDATION OF A LEADERSHIP
TRAINING PROGRAM PROTOTYPE FOR
AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN

by

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DEDICATION

To my daughter, parents, sister and husband in honor of your unselfishness and caring throughout this endeavor. May you be richly blessed for your patience and understanding --

In His peace;

By His grace; and

Through His Love!

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Sexual and racial separatism have directly impacted upon the advancement of African American women to leadership positions. When discussing the dilemmas of black females in leadership, Dumas (1979) (cited in Rodgers-Rose, 1980) stated "the full leadership potential of black females throughout their history in this country has remained a relatively untapped -- or at best, underutilized -- resource, not only in predominantly white institutions and organizations, but also in black communities as well." She maintains that African American women have been denied opportunities to leadership roles because they have been "obstructed by the dynamics of racism and sexism in the groups in which they live and work" (p. 203).

Hooks (1991) explained that "when the civil rights movement began in the 1950s, black women and men again joined together to struggle for racial equality, yet black female activists did not receive the public acclaim awarded to black male leaders. Sexual role patterning was as much the norm in African American communities as in any other American community. It was an accepted fact among black people

that the leaders who were most revered and respected were men" (p. 4).

Cole (1993) believed that "like racism, sexism is an irrational leap of faith from recognizing differences to believing that difference makes a qualitative difference. To complete the parallel, the ideology of female inferiority has bred attitudes, beliefs, and behavior that promote the subordination and oppression of women" (p. 83).

Dumas (1979) further emphasized that reconciling sexual and racial differences within the workplace strained established relationships between white and African American women. These relationships began during the movement to abolish slavery and flourished during the years between 1880 and World War I. With the passage of the 1920 Women's Suffrage Amendment to the United States Constitution, white women's rights activists focused their attention on obtaining for women the right to work in various occupations. Unfortunately, this equality for employment did not necessarily extend to the African American woman (Hooks, 1991).

Cole (1993) posits that "clearly sexism, like racism, is neither genetic nor irreversible" (p. 83). She explained that "African American women, confronted

with racism on the one hand and sexism on the other, find themselves, indeed, between a rock and a hard place. Although we have been more preoccupied with the weight of racism, we are keenly aware of the oppression we experience as women" (p. 86).

The assumption has been that African American women have been benefactors of both the equal pay and equal rights movement. Mason (1988) and others have argued that realistically, the economic revolution in the United States and not the crusade for equal rights mandates, and egalitarian approaches has weakened the bonds between women and men regardless of race. According to Mason (1988), "equality between the sexes quickly breaks down into each man/woman for himself/herself, shattering the delicate symbiotic ties that bind men and women together. Each racial group and sex blames the other, not understanding that they both are caught in a larger net of social change" (p. 23).

The complexities and nuances of this imbalance between sexes are far more evident in the contemporary marketplace, where much attention has been directed toward the lack of access women have to senior executive level positions. According to a U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Statistics (1989)

report, gross inequities still exist for the selection and advancement of African American women to positions of leadership within the workplace. Although some gains have been made in the job market, they are not substantial; some of these women have, however, managed to move into high-level, top-salaried jobs.

The twenty-first century marketplace promises many challenging and highly technical positions in addition to more opportunities for leadership positions. The Hudson Institute Report, Workforce 2000 (1987), projected that management and executive level positions will grow by more than 3 million jobs by the year 2000. Growth in the number of managerial and management-related jobs through the year 2000 should provide increased employment opportunities for all women who are competently prepared.

Given these projections, the need to prepare and develop African American women for such positions seem to replace earlier concerns about shortages of leadership opportunities. Leadership preparedness has been addressed by a cadre of modern African American women leaders and expert observers. In particular, Cole proposed in a 1985 speech that education [and training] is the most consistent and obtainable means for the empowerment of African American women. She

believed that the empowerment of these women requires the kind of education where the goal is more than the advancement of an individual; it is an education that moves toward changing the conditions of our communities, people, nation and world. The curriculum of such an education must fully address the complexities of African American women's lives. African American women must be educated for leadership.

Further, Cole (1993) believes that augmenting such leadership training should be teachings by African American role models. She reasons that "positive role models encourage high self-esteem, which is a necessary ingredient for learning. Positive role models boost a student's pride and sense of self-worth" (p. 198).

Rationale for the Study

Women in Leadership Positions

The largest proportion of African American women in management is in government service, mainly in management-related occupations rather than line executives and administrators. But, according to the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, there have been small increases in the number of women executives in

the senior executive service (SES) since fiscal year 1991. Table 1 shows the number of minority SES employees for fiscal years 1991 and 1994. Of the 119 minority SES women employees: 77 were black; 25 Hispanic; 12 Asian/Pacific Islanders; and 5 American Indians/Alaskans. Of the 507 minority SES men employees: 307 were black; 84 Hispanic; 66 Asian/Pacific Islanders; and 50 American Indians/Alaskans.

Also, Table 1 shows that the largest number of minority women employees in the SES during fiscal year 1994 were African American women. Of the 193 minority SES women employees: 127 were black; 39 Hispanic; 19 Asian/Pacific Islanders; and 8 American Indians/Alaskans. Of the 606 minority SES men employees: 362 were black; 105 Hispanic; 86 Asian/Pacific Islanders; and 53 American Indians/Alaskans.

The U. S. Office of Personnel Management's (1993) report on SES employees by race and sex, shows that 8,451 were non-minorities and 799 were minorities (see Table 2). There were 7,350 men and 1,294 women SES non-minority employees. There were 606 men and 193 women minority SES employees.

Table 1

Federal Senior Executive Service Minority Group and Sex Report for FY-1991 and FY-1994

	^a FY-1991			^b FY-1994		
	W	M	Total	W	M	Total
Black	77	307	384	127	362	489
Hispanic	25	84	109	39	105	144
Asian/Pacific Islanders	12	66	78	19	86	105
American Indians/ Alaskans	5	50	55	8	53	61
Total	119	507	626	193	606	769

Note: Source, Women's Bureau, Department of Labor and
U.S. Office of Personnel Management

Table 2

Federal Senior Executive Service Report by Race and Gender for FY-1994

	Total	Women	Men
Non-minority	8,451	1,101	7,350
Minority	799	193	606
Total	9,250	1,294	7,956

As it relates to the private sector, the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor (1989) reported that in 1988, 240,000 African American women were employed in positions at the executive and administrative levels. Comparatively, there were about 221,000 women of Hispanic origin who were employed at the executive and administrative levels. In 1986, the Bureau conducted a survey of corporate women officers [response rate - 52.4%] employed in Fortune 1000 organizations and of those surveyed: 96.7% were white; .9% African American; 1.9% Asian; and 0.5% Native American Indian.

Leadership Training

It has been said that the United States joined the global economy in the 1980s by shifting from an industrial to an information society. In a time of change, women became leaders of small and mid-size firms. Aburdene & Naisbitt (1992) stated that with limited backgrounds in military and business, and few mentors to teach leadership skills, women, in general were thrown back to their instincts. In fact, they found that women were advised to imitate male strategies when developing leadership skills.

According to Dickens & Dickens (1982), leadership training programs geared for African American women

were absent in the private sector. These authors explained, that reports generated following the passage of the civil rights legislation, support that most companies hired African American professionals because they were minimally qualified. Prospective employers believed that once employed, African Americans could be trained to perform at optimum level. Dickens & Dickens (1982) concluded that generally speaking, industry has not found a workable means of training and developing African Americans for higher managerial and leadership positions.

No systematic efforts have been undertaken by the public sector to design a training program explicitly for African American women. In general, people in managerial positions face a variety of challenges. Traditional courses in management, leadership, and supervision seldom do an adequate job of teaching the skills necessary to handle these challenges effectively (Finney & Siehl, 1985-86; Porter & McKibbin, 1988).

Modeling Constructs

Formal and informal leadership training opportunities increased during the late 1970s through 1980s for women. These programs were usually short-

term, extra-institutional training programs that served as an important vehicle for providing registrants contacts with role models (Apostolon, 1980; Harvard, 1988). Studies conducted in the 1980s show that mentoring/coaching/role modeling relationships are advantageous when developing leaders (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Overall, African American women who have ascended to leadership positions commonly opined, that in some cases, the lack of a mentor, role model or support agent thwarted their progress (Harvard, 1988). African American women studied in the 1980s indicated that their concept of role model held divergent meanings; usually, the role model was limited to that of a parent (mainly the mother), sibling or other family member, and were more evenly seen as a support agent rather than a role model (O'Neil, 1989). Role modeling and its influences on developing leadership skills, has emerged in the literature research and studies, as it relates to white women more than African American women.

Self-efficacy Constructs

Closely aligned with the role modeling concept above, is self-efficacy and its influence on leadership development. As a concept, self-efficacy is the belief that one is competent and capable of attaining difficult task objectives (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy or self-confidence consistently ranked among the listing of traits shown by leaders (Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, 1989, 1991).

When the success of models who possess similar attributes led others to try things they would otherwise shun, spurious indicants can have beneficial social effects (Bandura, 1986). For example, the performance of others are often selected as standards for self-improvement of abilities. Therefore, performers choose to compare themselves with proficient models possessing the competencies to which they aspire. The observers identify this behavior exhibited as having either intrinsic or extrinsic value. According to Bandura (1986), intrinsic is a factor perceived as having inherent reward or value rather than behavior performed for external value; and extrinsic is a factor perceived as having external reward or value rather than behavior performed for inherent value.

Research conducted by Bandura (1986) on the influence of self-efficacy and career selection, shows that women judge themselves highly efficacious for the types of occupations traditionally held by women, but in-efficacious in mastering the educational requirements and job functions of vocations dominated by men. Bandura (1986) suggested that "regardless of sex, the higher the level of perceived self-efficacy, the wider the range of career options seriously considered and the greater the degree of interest shown in them" (p. 432).

Bandura's perspective was consistent with that of Collins (1982), who found that perceived self-efficacy predicted interest better than actual ability. He believed that societal practices require of women a robust sense of self-efficacy to pursue non-traditional vocations. When preparing for and entering careers dominated by men, they must believe strongly in themselves.

Most studies on leadership traits find that self-efficacy is related positively to effectiveness and advancement (Bass, 1990). Kanter (1977) found that people often take on the characteristics necessary for success in whatever occupation they are in. Baron & Graziano (1991) posit that "if a woman becomes a

manager, she may adopt the assertive interpersonal style required for success in that position" (p. 189). But, Kanfer & Huflin's study (cited in Bandura, 1986) found that "a high sense of personal efficacy is required to enlist the perseverant effort needed for a successful job search" (p. 433). Success on the job further depends on self-efficacy in dealing with the social realities of work situations.

Purpose of the Study

Cole (1985, 1991) asserted that leadership training is one important way in which African American women may be able to enhance their advancement opportunities in both the workplace and community. Yet, few attempts have been made to understand how African American women become leaders. Fewer efforts have been undertaken to describe the skills, abilities, and competencies these women need and how to train them. Evidence drawn from the literature, recommendations from notable and expert observers, and the current status of African American women in the marketplace indicates a need for a leadership training program.

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to design and validate a leadership training program

prototype for African American women. The prototype program was based on the direct instruction model. This model is a behaviorist approach to teaching and learning, wherein the curriculum is organized so that students experience success in mastering the subject matter (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1993). The overall goal of the training program prototype, was to provide participants with useful information to apply and move toward action-steps which could facilitate their personal and professional leadership development.

The scope of the dissertation study was limited to the design of a training program prototype (an intensive one-day workshop), and the corresponding facilitator's manual and participants' workbook. In addition, a preliminary and main field-test was conducted to evaluate the training prototype, and is discussed later in the body of the dissertation.

A major activity in the design and validation of the training program prototype was the needs assessment process. An intact group of African American women leaders, who are members of the federal senior executive service (SES) ranked fourteen managerial behavior skills in terms of their importance for leadership development. In addition,

these women determined the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each managerial behavior skill. From among this group of SES employees, project role models were selected. The project role models participated in a focus-group interview session which was video-taped and incorporated into the curriculum of the training program prototype.

Significance of the Study

The literature strongly suggests that leadership skills can be taught. But, studies relating to the formal leadership development and training of African American women have been omitted in the literature. Equally absent are the efforts by educational institutions and industry to develop leadership training programs for African American women which includes in its curriculum, skills that may be intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. Future workplace and community needs support efforts to provide leadership development training for these women. This study was, therefore, the first to address this need by designing and validating a leadership training

program prototype for African American women which:

- . examined role modeling and self efficacy constructs as effective leadership competencies using the direct instruction model as defined above; and
- . engaged African American women who are employed by the federal government at the SES level in the development of the curriculum solely for other African American women.

Conclusions drawn from this study may suggest strategies for appropriate leadership development curricula in college and university settings. Furthermore, the research methodology may be replicated in other studies addressing needs that are peculiar to the African American community.

Description of the Project

The study was an educational research and development project, wherein a leadership training program prototype for African American women was designed, implemented and evaluated. The training program prototype was a one-day workshop titled Planning and Organizing based on the direct

instruction model. The direct instruction model is a teaching strategy, wherein the curriculum is organized so that students experience success in mastering the subject matter (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1993).

To complete the initial design phase of the prototype workshop, the researcher surveyed a cluster sampling of African American women at the senior executive service (SES) level who are employed in the executive branch of the federal government. Cluster sampling is a sampling process in which intact groups, not individuals, are randomly selected (Gay, 1992). A needs assessment survey-questionnaire was developed and used to: (a) determine the prototype workshop topic, and (b) examine fourteen managerial behavior skills integrated from two studies in the literature. In addition, the cluster sampling group rated and assessed the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each managerial behavior skill in terms of its importance for developing African American women for leadership.

A facilitator's manual and participant's workbook was developed. A preliminary and main field-testing of the prototype workshop which was based on the direct instruction model was conducted and evaluated.

Therefore, the following project elements were examined during the design, implementation and evaluation of the prototype workshop:

- a. to ascertain the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership and their understanding of how one obtains leadership status;
- b. to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing African American women for leadership positions by surveying the cluster sampling group;
- c. to determine how modeling and self-efficacy constructs influence leadership development and training of African American women by using the direct instruction model;
- d. to design a prototype workshop curriculum, facilitator's manual and participant's workbook for training African American women; and
- e. to implement the preliminary and main field-testing of the prototype workshop and evaluate both, making appropriate revisions.

Definition of Terms

Operational definitions used in terms of observable, identifiable, and repeatable measures are listed below:

Cluster Sampling Group

Cluster sampling is a sampling process in which groups, not individuals, are randomly selected. Any location within which is found an intact group of similar characteristics is a cluster. (Educational research competencies for analysis and application, 4th ed., L.R. Gay, 1992).

Direct Instruction Model

The term refers to a pattern of teaching which consists of the teacher's explaining a new concept or skill to a large group of students, having them test their understanding by practicing under teacher direction and controlled practice (Joyce & Showers, 1992).

Extrinsic Factor

A factor perceived as having external reward or value rather than behavior performed for inherent value (Bandura, 1986).

Formative Evaluation

Testing a new instructional program with a sampling of learners during the development phase, and using the results to improve the program (Kemp, 1985).

Goal Statement

Broad statement describing what should take place in an instructional course or training program (Kemp, 1985).

Intrinsic Factor

A factor perceived as having inherent reward or value rather than behavior performed for external value (Bandura, 1986).

Needs Assessment Survey

Procedure used to gather information before deciding whether there is a substantive need for instruction or training (Kemp, 1985).

Learning Objective

Statement describing what the learner is specifically required to learn or accomplish relative to a topic or task (Kemp, 1985).

Managerial Behavior Skills

One of 14 leadership behavior skills or taxonomies based on an integrated listing and recommended definitions from the Yukl (1987, 1989) studies and Harvard's dissertation study in 1988.

Role Model

A support agent, limited to that of a parent (mainly a mother), sibling or other family member (Harvard, 1988; O'Neil, 1989). Also, defined as a person whose behavior in a particular role is imitated Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary (1984).

Summative Evaluation

Measuring how well the major outcomes of a course or program are attained at the conclusion of instruction (posttest) or thereafter on the job (Kemp, 1985).

Trait

Any distinctive physical or physiological characteristic of the individual to which the individual's behavior can be attributed (House & Baetz, 1979).

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Several areas of literature have a bearing on the study. The review begins with an overview on leadership: trait theories, taxonomies, situational, transactional and transformational. Secondly, a broad discussion on the development of a new leadership style for women is presented. Next, the use of training programs designed to improve leadership skills and abilities is described. Finally, research on modeling (use in teaching) and self-efficacy is reviewed.

Overview

Leadership, as defined by Burns (1978), is a universal human activity in which leaders influence followers to attain goals that represent their motives, needs, wants, hopes, and expectations. There has been considerable controversy as to the nature of leadership. Historians and researchers have struggled not only with the definition of leadership, but have also been curious about how one becomes a leader. According to Johnson & Johnson (1991), hundreds of research studies have been conducted to identify the

personal attributes of leaders. This section explores these leadership models: "trait" theories; taxonomies; situational; transactional and transformational.

Trait Theories

Throughout history there has been a continuing popular belief that leaders possess unique, inborn traits, and that great leaders are discovered, not developed. The "great man" or "great woman" theories led to the trait theories of leadership. This theory is based on the premise that leadership can be understood by studying traits of great leaders (Johnson & Johnson, 1991). A trait is defined as "any distinctive physical or psychological characteristic of the individual to which the individual's behavior can be attributed" (House & Baetz, 1979, p. 348).

Today, the trait research is slowly rediscovering how leader attributes relate to leadership behavior and effectiveness (Yukl, 1989). Prior to the early 1970s, researchers tended to discount the results of earlier trait studies. Trait research was facilitated by the rapid development of psychological testing during the period from 1920 to 1950. But, many theorists concluded that trait research was fruitless, in part, since it was difficult to identify or predict

a particular set of traits in order to become a successful leader (Bass, 1991; Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Stogdill, 1948, 1974).

Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 trait studies conducted during the period of 1904 to 1948, and found that "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits...the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (p. 64). Later, Stogdill (1974) reviewed 163 trait studies which were conducted during the period of 1949 to 1970. His 1974 study differed from the earlier one conducted in 1948 because the research used a greater variety of measurements, including projective, situational, and forced choice tests. More of the studies involved managers and administrators as opposed to other kinds of leaders.

Comparatively, while most of the same traits in his 1948 study were again found to be related to leader effectiveness, some additional traits and skills were found to be relevant in the later study.

The trait profile proffered by Stogdill (1974) suggests that the successful leader is characterized by:

a strong drive for responsibility and task completion; vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals; venturesomeness and originality in problem-solving; drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity; willingness to accept consequences of decision and action; readiness to absorb interpersonal stress; willingness to tolerate frustration and delay; ability to influence other person's behavior; and capacity to structure social interaction systems to purpose at hand (p. 81).

The results of several trait studies conducted during the period of 1983 to 1986, led Forsyth (1990) to conclude that, "in retrospect this rejection of the personality/leadership relationship was premature" (p. 224). Both Forsyth's (1990) and Yukl's (1989) study identified leadership traits similar to those cited by Stogdill's studies of 1948 and 1970 such as: adaptability; ascendancy; energy level; responsibility taking; self-confidence; and sociability.

Research on managerial assessment centers has yielded useful insights about traits related to managerial advancement in an organization (Yukl, 1994, p. 261). He cited the longitudinal study conducted at American Telephone and Telegraph Company by Bray, Campbell, and Grant (1974) as one of the best examples

of assessment center research (see Table 3). Bray et al., (1974) found that, "the prediction of success based on a candidate's assessed traits was more accurate if the person had a job situation favorable to individual development" (p. 262). In addition, they found that the following skills were the best predictors of a candidate's advancement into middle management: (1) oral communication, (2) human relations, (3) planning-organizing, and (4) creativity. Personality traits predicting a candidate's advancement best were: (1) desire for advancement, (2) resistance to stress, (3) tolerance of uncertainty, (4) energy/activity level, (5) range of interests, (6) inner work standards, and (7) readiness to make decisions (p. 178).

Table 3

Traits and Skills Found Most Frequently to be
Characteristic of Successful Leaders

Traits	Skills
Adaptable to situations	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious and achievement- oriented	Creative
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Fluent in speaking
Decisive	Knowledgeable about group task
Dependable	Organized (administrative ability)
Dominant (desire to influence others)	Persuasive
Energetic (high activity level)	Socially skilled
Persistent	
Self-confident	
Tolerant of stress	
Willing to assume responsibility	

Note. From Leadership in Organizations (p. 128)
by G. A. Yukl, 1989, Englewood Cliffs, NJ:
Prentice-Hall Copyright 1989

Finally, the trait theory model suggests that successful leaders are characteristic of people who are intelligent and dynamic, have a broad vision, and are strongly motivated to become leaders (Chemers, 1983). This assumption has been supported by recent systematic attempts to identify characteristics and practices exhibited by successful leaders. For instance, Pfeiffer's (1991) review found that although researchers identify leadership characteristics differently, they commonly emphasize: (a) belief in their ability to develop the potential of followers; (b) an ability to establish and communicate goals that are challenging, realistic and attainable; (c) an ability to see themselves as winners; (d) a commitment to excellence, and a genuine, intense enthusiasm for what they do; and (e) a focus on the human aspect as well as the task procedures, concepts and technologies.

Leadership Behavior Taxonomies

The identification of skills and behaviors had a significant impact on the trait studies. Early research concerning the proliferation of leadership skills needed for successful managerial behavior fell under three categories: technical, interpersonal, and

conceptual (Katz, 1955; Mann, 1965). "Technical skills are primarily concerned with things, interpersonal skills are primarily concerned with people, and conceptual skills are primarily concerned with ideas and concepts" (Yukl, 1989, p. 192).

Yukl (1989) proposed an "integrating taxonomy based on a combination of approaches, including factor analysis, judgmental classification, and theoretical deduction" (p. 128). Yukl's (1989) multiple-linkage model has four broad and eleven "middle-range" behavior categories, each containing large numbers of specific component behaviors. This model is based upon the following three assumptions: (1) earlier research on leader behavior did not encompass common managerial behavior needed to comprehend leadership effectiveness, (2) a new taxonomy was needed which abandons the earlier tradition among behavior taxonomies of using separate categories to describe internal and external interactions, and (3) use of behavior categories were so broadly defined that they obscured the important distinctions among component behaviors used to determine managerial effectiveness. The behaviors in the taxonomy were measured by a questionnaire called the Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).

As shown in Table 4, the broad categories of managerial behavior found within Yukl's (1989) model are: building and maintaining relationships; collecting and disseminating information; making decisions; and influencing people. Within each of Yukl's (1989) broad categories are behavior sub-categories defined at a middle level of generality (see Appendix A). Although Yukl (1989) believes that his multiple linkage model is incomplete, "in that it does not specify clearly how each individual behavior affects each intervening variable" (p. 144), it is more complex and comprehensive than those proffered by Bowers & Seashore (1986) and House & Mitchell (1974).

Yukl's (1989) model encompasses forms of behavior which are directly linked to the empirical research on leadership behavior taxonomies. The multiple-linkage model can be extended to include leader traits as well as leader powers in terms of their importance. It also includes skills development as an unambiguous leadership construct. More importantly, Yukl's (1989) model is the most recent one to "maintain continuity with earlier taxonomies and with major lines of research on leader behavior, such as research on positive reward behavior, participative leadership,

supportive leadership, transformational leadership" (p. 128).

Situational Leadership

The research on leadership shifted from trait studies to characterizing leader's behavior focusing upon the importance of leader-member or leader-follower relationships in various situations. This section therefore, addresses three distinctive, yet similar, situational leadership theories: Fiedler's (1967), Hersey & Blanchard's (1969, 1977, 1984), and Vroom & Yetton's (1973). Each model is based upon the assumption that "the effectiveness of a leader depends on considering both the leader's personality and the group's situation" (Baron & Graziano, 1991, pp. 515-516).

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model describes how the situation moderates the relationship between leader traits and effectiveness. Fiedler assumed that leaders could be characterized by their leadership styles, in terms of their orientation to their followers. Fiedler asked each leader in his study to: (a) think about the people he or she worked with; (b) identify the person that he or she liked working with the most; (c) identify the person that he or she liked

Table 4

Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model

<u>Building and Maintaining Relationships:</u>	
Supporting	Networking
Team Building	Managing Conflict
<u>Collecting and Disseminating Information:</u>	
Monitoring	Clarifying
Informing	
<u>Making Decisions:</u>	
Planning	Organizing
Problem Solving	Consulting
Delegating	
<u>Influencing People:</u>	
Motivating	Recognizing
Rewarding	

working with the least; and (d) indicate how favorably he or she felt toward the person. He found that leaders who evaluated their least-preferred-coworker (LPC) very negatively were primarily oriented to task success. Those who evaluate the LPCs positively, on the other hand, were more concerned with relationships among the group members (Rice, 1978).

Fiedler's (1967) model has been criticized on both methodological and theoretical grounds. According to Baron & Graziano (1991), one implication of Fiedler's model is that leaders who have a certain leadership style would be more effective if they are trained to modify group situations to fit with their styles. In training programs where managers were trained in such fashion, they were found to be more effective than nontrained leaders or leaders trained in other ways (Fiedler & Mahar, 1979).

The principle significance of Hersey & Blanchard's (1969, 1977, 1982) theory of situational leadership is that most of the leader's activities can be classified into two distinct behavioral dimensions: (1) initiation of structure (task actions), and (2) consideration of group members (relationship or maintenance actions). Their model portrays four combinations of leadership behavior:

"telling," "selling," "participating," and delegating."

A bell-shaped curve (see Appendix B) appears in a four quadrant box and represents the leader's adjustments in behavior as his or her subordinates develop higher readiness levels. "Telling - first quadrant, refers to high-task/low relationship leadership behavior. The leader is expected to provide detailed instructions directing employees, but the relationship behavior is low, because as the follower's experience and understanding of the task goes up, so does their task maturity.

"Selling - the second quadrant, indicates high-task/high relationship leadership behavior. The leader invites the subordinate to "buy into" or "own" the task and rewards the employee for the increase in ability and willingness to perform the task.

The third quadrant, low-task/high-relationship leadership behavior is referred to as "participating." This means that the leader is acting as a colleague, an equal, in discussing the job with the subordinates. There is more collaboration in the task aspect of the job. Decisions are usually shared through two-way

communications since all group members have the ability and knowledge to complete the task.

Finally, "delegating" refers to low-task/low-relationship leadership behavior. In "delegating," the leader lets the employee get on with their jobs, stepping in only when direction or support is needed (Johnson & Johnson, 1991; Pfeiffer, 1991).

However, Pfeiffer (1991) cautioned that in order for this model to be effective, the leader must select an appropriate leadership style for the situation. It is thus important to first assess the readiness level of the person who has been asked to undertake the task or responsibility. Then the leader selects the corresponding leader-behavior to the follower-readiness continuum.

Vroom and Yetton's (1973) normative model is based on an analysis of how a leader's decision behavior affects two areas: (1) quality - the leader's decisions that affect group performance, notwithstanding any effect mediated by decision acceptance; and (2) acceptance - the degree of subordinate commitment to implement the leader's decision. Johnson & Johnson (1991) defined the five

elements of the normative model as described below:

Autocratic I: Making the decision using information currently available to the leader.

Autocratic II: Making the decision using information available to all group members without informing them of the purpose of the information.

Consultative I: Sharing the problem with relevant individuals, getting their ideas and suggestions without getting them together as a group, and then making the decision.

Consultative II: Sharing the problem with the group, obtaining their ideas and suggestions during a group discussion, and then making the decision.

Group II: Sharing the problem with the group, chairing a group discussion, and accepting and implementing any decision by the entire group.

(pp. 173-174).

Vroom and Yetton's (1973) normative model of leadership also features seven problem attributes of a given situation which must be considered when the leader makes a decision. According to Vroom & Yetton (1973), by answering "each question 'yes' or 'no' leads to a decision tree that tells the leader how to

proceed" (p. 174). But, this model is rather complex and requires extensive training. The leader must first understand how the decision process flows and then determine which process application simplifies the optimal decision-making process.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) pointed out that without followers, there cannot be leaders; the roles of leaders and followers are connected by the collective pursuit of common goals. Burns labelled the relationships and interactions that develop between leaders and followers either transactional or transformational.

Transactional leadership is based on the principle of exchange. Most leadership-follower interactions are of the transactional type (Bass, 1981). Transactional leaders are often described as bargainers, bureaucrats, legislative leaders, and executive leaders (Pfeiffer, 1991). However, Johnson & Johnson (1991) suggested the following three weaknesses associated with the transactional model: (1) not all of the appointed leader's actions are

leadership behavior. There is no option for exchange in roles. Leader-follower relations usually are short term, largely because leaders and followers cannot continue the same exchange indefinitely; (2) transactions focus on the gratification of need and can be highly manipulative, exploitative, and impersonal; and (3) the role behavior of subordinates is influenced by outsiders who have no direct authority over them. Followers tend toward conformity.

Transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) is based on the principle of mutual stimulation and elevation. Here, Burns' theory embraces the influence theory which also implies a reciprocal role relationship between leaders and followers in which an exchange of transaction takes place. This reciprocal relationship, however, does not infer domination. Leadership is thus the art of ensuring that group members work together with the least friction and the most cooperation (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Pfeiffer (1991) concluded that at first glance, Burns' perspective may be perceived as overly conceptual; however, the macro analyses that he introduced have significant implications for the real-world emphasis of modern organization. Of the two,

transformational relationships offer mutually gratifying needs which are based on a shared vision of both organizational and individual satisfaction. Employees feel powerful and free to participate in organizational leadership, thus creating an environment characterized by interdependence, innovation, and entrepreneurial spirit.

Transformational leaders are often described as movers and shakers, visionaries, intellectual leaders, leaders of reform, innovators, and heroes (Bass, 1991). These leaders recognize potential follower's needs that transcend exchanges, and inspire their followers to higher-order satisfaction of needs such as those related to self-actualization, esteem, and belonging (Maslow, 1965, 1970).

Bass (1990) provides a very interesting discussion on the former leadership style - transactional (legitimate authority and coercion) which has been replaced by the transformational leadership style. This critique, therefore, focuses upon the assumptions described by Bass, and the strengths and weaknesses of the transactional and transformational leadership models.

Transactional leadership is characterized mainly by two important factors: (a) exchanges of promises

and rewards for good performance; and (b) exchanges of threats and disciplines for poor performance. These kinds of transactions describe the relationship between aggressive managers and employees. The manager/leader gets things done by making and fulfilling promises of recognition, paying increases, and advancing employees who perform well. By comparison, employees who do not do good work are penalized.

This leadership model presupposes that the "promise of rewards or the avoidance of penalties motivates employees" (Bass, 1990, p. 20). This leadership style is only effective when the leaders can provide rewards valued by employees. However, in many instances, transactional leadership "is a prescription of mediocrity" (p.20). Using disciplinary threats as a way of improving performance is ineffective and counterproductive. Moreover, some other factors such as the organization's seniority system, personnel compensation policy, or inadequate financial resources may affect the leader's ability to exercise control over rewards or penalties.

Bass (1990) maintains that excellent performance can be achieved through transactional leadership; however, superior leadership performance is sustained

through transformational leadership. This style encompasses the broadened and elevated interests of the employees, generating awareness, and acceptance of the mission by stirring employees to look beyond "their own self-interest for the good of the group" (p.21).

Transformational leaders are also described as charismatic leaders by Bass (1990), and seem to achieve results in several ways. He delineated four specific ways: (1) inspiring employees; (2) meeting emotional needs of employees; (3) stimulating the intellectual needs of employees; and (4) exerting a great degree of trust and confidence in their employees. According to Bass (1990), "charisma in the eyes of one's employees is central to succeeding as a transformational leader" (p. 21). These leaders are individually considerate, paying close attention to differences among their employees.

Bass compared these leadership styles and found that:

1. Transformational leadership can be learned.
2. Employees and colleagues regard transformational leaders as satisfying and effective leaders more than those who behave like transactional leaders.

3. Transformational leaders tend to contribute more to the organization than do transactional leaders. Similarly, employees tend to exert extra effort on behalf of the transformational leader.
4. Transformational leaders frequently raise standards, take calculated risks, and get others to share in their vision. They also challenge and change the organization's culture.
5. Employees within a transformational leadership organization are more comfortable or satisfied with the company's performance and appraisal system.

Bass supports his selection of transformational leadership as the most effective leadership style, based on the results of his studies, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), completed by the leader's colleagues, supervisors, and subordinates. This questionnaire measured various aspects of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). Scales measuring separate aspects of each are based on factor analysis of the questionnaire. Several studies have examined how leadership behavior described by subordinates on the

MLQ was related to various criteria for leadership effectiveness, such as performance ratings by superiors, and the level of task commitment reported by subordinates (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). In addition, Bass (1990) cites the accomplishments of several transformational leaders he believes have contributed to the turnarounds of struggling firms. Unfortunately, Bass's (1990) study focuses on male leaders and fails to cite any females or minorities as exemplary transformational leaders.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) conducted a study of 12 CEOs in a variety of organizations, mostly through interviews. They found that success at each stage of the transformational process depends, in part, on the leader's attitudes, values and skills. Effective transformational leaders in that study saw themselves as: change agents; prudent risk-takers; believed in and were sensitive to the needs of people; articulated core values guiding their behavior; had cognitive skills, believed in disciplined thinking and problem analysis; and were visionaries who trusted their intuition (Yukl, 1990).

Women and Leadership

Although the gender gap in leadership has narrowed in recent years, it has not closed. Increasing numbers of women now hold jobs in what were once male-dominated fields, but their rise to upper-level management and leadership positions in these fields has been slow (Forsyth, 1990). Gender bias occurs even when women are interpersonally dominant (Fleischer & Chertkoff, 1986; Megargee, 1969; Nyquist & Spence, 1986).

Helgesen (1990) conducted case diaries to study the importance of gender and leadership effectiveness. Her primary aim was to develop a "clear definition of feminine principles, and draw a rounded picture of the impact those principles are having in the changing economy" (p.7). Helgesen's research methodology closely matched that employed by Mintzberg's (1968) study of four male executives. Helgesen (1990) chose to study four women (three Caucasians and an African American). Using Mintzberg's (1968) methodology provided Helgesen a "method that was both specific and concrete," thereby giving her a "standard of comparison with men" (p.7).

It is important to note here the similarities and dissimilarities between the two studies which were:

- (1) The men worked at an unrelenting pace, with no breaks in activity during the day. The women also worked at a steady pace, taking small deliberate scheduled breaks.
- (2) The men disdained unscheduled tasks, interruptions, discontinuity and fragmentation in their work day while the women did not view them as interruptions.
- (3) The men spared little time for activities not directly work-related, but not the women. Family life was a priority for the women, whereas the men rarely found time for such matters.
- (4) Both exhibited a preference for live action encounters, except men viewed the mail as a burden and women felt it a more pleasant task.
- (5) Each maintained a complex network of relationships outside their organization.
- 6) The men tended to become overly absorbed in the day-to-day tasks of management, therefore lacking time for

reflection, whereas the women kept the long term in constant focus.

(7) The males saw their own identity tied to their jobs while the females viewed their identities as complex and multifaceted. This was a significant difference. These women viewed their jobs as just one element of who they were, rather than being defined solely based upon title and position.

(8) The men tended to hoard information and had difficulty sharing it. However, the women held structured information sharing sessions, viewing it as a deliberate process, a major goal of everyday.

Helgesen (1990) found that women tended to ground their description of how knowledge is gained and opinions formed in terms of listening and speaking. The metaphor of vision was changed to that of voice. She concluded that "women's way of leading emphasizes the role of voice over that of vision" (p.222). The woman's leader's voice is a means both for presenting herself and what she knows about the world, and for eliciting a response. Her vision of her company might define its ends, but her voice is the means for getting that vision across.

Therefore, Helgesen's (1990) model of feminine leadership was distinctive in the following six major areas as it relates to voice and vision: (1) each spoke with a distinctive voice - passionate and provocative, given to extremes, confident, unafraid of sounding foolish; (2) their voice was both a unique expression of their own personality, and an instrument conveying and guiding their vision; (3) the tone of her words enabled each to not only model her values, but to also find a way to instruct, influence, and persuade others to share those values; (4) written correspondence was viewed as an extension and natural reflection of her voice; (5) their voices were means of releasing a lot of energy, relaxing while swimming with the flow; and (6) her vision was manifested by leading with a voice. According to Helgesen (1990), the female advantage in leadership is captured in the rich dimension and resonance of the voices of women. This was evidenced by "the women's big-picture thinking which contradicts conventional wisdom about the differences in how men and women manage" (p.25).

According to Aburdene & Naisbitt (1992), the great wave of female economic activity has generated a compelling new approach to leadership. It rejects the military-style authoritarian management in favor

of an approach that supports and empowers people, thereby increasing both productivity and profits. The new female leadership style model developed by them was termed "Women's Leadership." Their model (see Table 5) consists of a cluster of six central traits with relevant behaviors or primary attributes of women's leadership. While Aburdene & Naisbitt's (1992) model has not been tested, they have presented an impressionistic rather than definitive view. The model developed by Aburdene & Naisbitt complements the model of feminine leadership proffered by Helgesen since both descriptions tend to be metaphorical, evocative and suggestive. Clearly, both models advocate much of the principles and leader-follower relationships found in the transformational leadership model as described earlier.

The studies discussed below show that it is difficult for women to: advance in higher education administration; become leaders because intrinsic and extrinsic barriers affect their advancement; and have fewer networks to increase advancement opportunities and leadership skills.

Table 5

Characteristics of Women's Leadership

Empower:	
Leadership	Reward
Invites Speaking Out	Motivator
Empowers	Values Creativity
How Can I Serve You?	Vision
Restructure:	
Change	Connection
Network	Flexible
Pay for Performance	Mutual Contract
Wholistic	for Results
	Systemic
Teaching:	
Facilitating	Teaching Archetype
Role Model:	
Acts as Role Model	
Openness:	
Nourishing Environment for Growth	
Reach Out	
Information Availability	
Questioner:	
Asks the Right Questions	

O'Neil's (1988) dissertation study explored the experiences of 15 women in top level positions in higher education administration at private institutions in Massachusetts. She inquired about their experiences within the context of: (1) developmental issues relative to the behaviors, attitudes and skills necessary to succeed in a male-dominated profession; (2) structural barriers; (3) perceptions about the effect of the women's movement and affirmative action on women in higher education administration; and (4) possibilities for career and economic advances for women in higher educational administration. As a result of extensive interviews, O'Neil found that the themes which emerged included the following:

Grace Under Pressure: stressing the importance of being in control even if there is a crisis at hand;

The Who Me? Syndrome: having so few role models to emulate, O'Neil's subjects had a feeling that they were "just lucky" to have their positions and were wary of doing anything to jeopardize their standing;

Going it Alone: choosing to go it alone, rather

than staying with a significant other who did not support or understand their aspirations;

The Sunburst Phenomenon: having the correct credentials, the right job opportunity, the right research committee, and being at the right place at the right time;

The Glass Ceiling: referring to the phenomenon of women in the corporate world not being promoted past the mid-management level;

Odd Man Out: describing common occurrences of not being taken seriously during important meetings or in the projects assigned;

Generativity: referring to the desire on the part of women in top level administrative positions to participate in the career development of young professionals as well as their own development.

O'Neil concluded that despite some modest increases in the overall representation of women administrators in higher education, women still do not occupy positions of power or command the high-level salaries earned by men in comparable positions.

According to Talley (1988), factors affecting the advancement of women are classified in two ways in the literature: (a) psychological and intrinsic in nature, and (b) sociological and extrinsic. Talley's

(1988) review of the literature shows that psychological/intrinsic factors which have negatively impacted female advancement include early socialization, fear of success, role expectations, role conflict, dual career strain, stress of inadequate day care, risk-taking, and feminine coping behavior. Additionally, Talley found that extrinsic, sociological/corporate factors which negatively affect female advancement include the "old boys network," power differences, male managerial model, salary differentials, tokenism, reluctance to work for a female boss, the "glass ceiling" phenomenon, infrequent mentoring, corporate sensitivity to the needs of working mothers, and the scarcity of female executives as role models. Talley's (1988) study (published as a dissertation study) compared these perceptions of intrinsic and extrinsic barriers affecting the advancement of female managers by surveying 176 corporate and entrepreneur members of the Wilmington Women in Business to determine whether there was concurrence between what the literature reported and what those business women actually experienced. Talley found that the six most important barriers as ranked by corporate women in descending order were: "old boys network," power differences,

lack/absence of mentoring, home/career conflict, low risk taking and traditional childhood. The entrepreneurs ranked the six most important barriers in descending order as: "old boys network," home/career conflict, power difference, lack/absence of mentoring, his/her career strain, with two barriers tying for sixth place: success apprehension and salary gap.

According to Harvard (1988), little has been written about African American women administrators in higher education. Her dissertation study examined strategies and behaviors used by African American women to successfully acquire and maintain their positions. Ultimately, Harvard (1988) sought to provide a better understanding of the issues confronting Black women who aspire or already hold higher education administrative positions, rather than verifying any given theory or set of prior assumptions. Nineteen Black women administrators (from two and four-year institutions, non-church related) were interviewed. The data gathered from these interviews concerned the subjects' experiences and perceptions of the following: (1) position acquisition; (2) the role of politics; (3) career enhancement strategies; (4) the effects of racism and

sexism; (5) the importance of a competitive spirit; (6) risk-taking behavior; (7) loyalty to the organization; (8) power; (9) confidence; and (10) the need to contribute to society. Harvard (1988) found that the recommended career enhancement strategies and behaviors utilized by aspiring Black females in higher education administration are as follows:

- (1) gaining interpersonal skills,
- (2) finding a mentor who can assist in one's career development,
- (3) learning to deal with racism and sexism,
- (4) gaining decision making skills, and
- (5) obtaining a doctoral degree.

All of the women studied agreed that their careers were enhanced by risk taking, loyalty to their organizations and contributions made to society. Her findings suggest that the political climate of a society will exert an impact upon the hiring practices of its public and private institutions. Harvard (1988) concluded that this impact translates into who gets what, when and how.

Each study reviewed in this section supports that women, in general, lack adequate models of leadership which explicitly incorporate the behaviors and

strategies unique to them. The perceptions of women in higher level-salaried positions as well as women who own their own business as shown by the studies above, also support that a lack of other factors, such as mentors, role models, self-esteem, and others affect their leadership development and professional advancement.

Training and Development

Training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership. Technical skills are learned by training methods such as technical books, procedural manuals, videotaped demonstrations, etc. Creative specialized training programs can enhance conceptual skills. In training, more than just a lecture or textbook description is needed to increase human relations (interpersonal) skills. The most effective training methods and models involve opportunities to practice skills and obtain feedback about what is and what is not done well (Yukl, 1989). This section contains a general discussion on training and its application to leadership development, and an examination of two training models: behavior modeling in training and the direct instruction model. Both of these models closely match the social learning theory

and mastery learning theory associated with modeling and self-efficacy.

Training Applications in Leadership Development

According to the dissertation study (1990) by Redmond, in 1985, U.S. corporations spent 450 billion dollars on learning and development programs for their employees (Thomas, 1988). It is estimated that a large proportion of those employees were managers or other white collar workers. Lusterman (1986) noted that a large portion of employers in all major job categories are now involved in some form of formal training, but the participation rates have been highest for managers.

Formal leadership development training has taken on several forms over the past few years, such as, individual learning, traditional classroom, and residential-based programs. The most recent form of leadership training has been experiential-based learning. The use of experiential-based learning as an effective training method was studied by Liebman (1990). Liebman's ethnographic study explored the effects of a visionary leadership training program course on nine college student leaders of major campus organizations. The 3 credit-hour course, designed by

Liebman (1990) was an attempt to discover what occurs when one introduces the concepts and skills associated with visionary leadership in an experiential-based classroom setting. Pre-and post-interviews, as well as ten additional sources of data, were used to analyze the leaders' experiences. As a result of the course, Liebman found that participants were able to: identify and clarify organizational visions, experience developmental growth, and express positive feelings about the future and their abilities to influence it.

A number of training studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of role modeling training for managers (Burnaska, 1976; Goldstein & Sorcher, 1974; Latham & Saari, 1979; Porras & Anderson, 1981). In these studies, a trained group was compared to a control group without training, and interpersonal skills were measured before and after training. These researchers also used a videotape or film demonstrating effective leadership behavior, and allowed training participants opportunities to practice the behavior by role play. Feedback was provided immediately by the trainers and other participants.

Feedback intervention has been used as a developmental training tool for skill building purposes. Subordinates or peers are asked to assess and rate managers by completing a leadership behavior questionnaire. The managers are provided the feedback along with an assessment which identifies deficiencies as well as suggested ways to improve upon those deficient areas (Yukl & Lepsing, 1989).

Films and videotapes have been used during leadership training programs to determine effective and ineffective behavior involving interpersonal skills. Cases and short incidents are used to stimulate discussions about appropriate and inappropriate behavior in sensitive situations, such as, dealing with problem subordinates; conducting performance appraisals; or resolving conflicts between subordinates. Role-play exercises can be very useful if they are properly designed, and feedback from observers and others is provided (Yukl, 1989).

Coaching, mentoring and modeling as effective training tools have been researched by Hunt & Michael (1983) and Kram (1985). These methods have also been widely accepted in the management literature as tools that develop subordinate skills which are important for managerial effectiveness (Bradford & Cohen, 1984).

Further, the training and development literature supports that skill development contributes to the satisfaction and performance of organization members (Guzzo, Jette, & Katzell, 1985; McCauley, 1986; Wexley, 1984).

Training Models

There is a vast amount of conceptual and empirical literature on training models. Unlike many models of teaching, those drawn from behavioral models of learning and instruction integrate the use of feedback, practice (structured or unstructured), reinforcement, role modeling, observation and successive approximation. Behavior modeling and the direct instruction model, are cited in this study because their instruction design principles and planning sequences focus not only on the design and planning of instruction, but also the interaction between the trainer and the learner.

Behavior Modeling in Training

Modeling is an indispensable aspect of learning, particularly when desired forms of behavior can be conveyed only by social cues. The process of acquisition can be considerably shortened by providing

appropriate models (Bandura & McDonald, 1963; Chesler, Bartlett & Victor, 1968).

Abella (1986) stated that behavior modeling be a technique used in training, providing participants "a step-by-step model for handling a given interaction. Then a demonstration of the skill is provided, usually on a video. The participants practice using the steps. Afterward they receive feedback about where they have used the model effectively and where they need to improve" (p.1). Confidence is built when the student can successfully demonstrate the new skill or behavior.

This model can be effectively used when training objectives encompass the following: (a) developing skill proficiency more than intellectual understanding; (b) providing specific sequence of steps for participants to follow; and (c) getting participants to follow pattern, or limiting the number of ways a situation is handled (Abella, 1986). Using behavior modeling in training incorporates steps similar to the direct instruction model described below; both utilize visual representation of the skill in order to facilitate learning. The steps include but are not limited to: (1) the instructor presents the established model steps; (2) a demonstration

is shown, usually on video, of the steps being used in a typical situation; (3) participants analyze how the model was used; (4) participants practice the model; and (5) feedback is given to each participant about the way he or she used the model (Abella, 1986, p.128).

Direct Instruction Model

This model is a behaviorist approach to teaching and learning, wherein the curriculum is organized so that students experience success in the mastery of the subject matter (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1993). The basic steps in the direct instruction model encompasses the following: (1) the teacher explains a new concept or skill to a large group of students; (2) the learner tests their understanding by practicing under teacher direction (i.e., controlled practice); and (3) the learner is encouraged to continue practice at their seats under teacher guidance (guided practice). Similar efforts have been associated with improved student engagement during the learning activity and with overall achievement (Block, 1980; Fisher, et al., 1980; Medley, 1977; Medley, Coker, & Soar, 1984). Anderson, et al. (1979) stated that the direct instruction model has also been used by teachers when

introducing activities which elicit relevant existing knowledge by: (a) discussing the lesson objectives, (b) describing materials and activities, and (c) providing an overview of the lesson.

Early research in this area tended to focus on teacher effectiveness and feedback. Researchers found that effective teachers spent more time explaining and demonstrating new material than less-effective teachers. Rosenshine's (1985) study found that presentation practices of effective teachers included the following: (a) presenting material in small steps to promote mastery learning; (b) modeling, or giving narrated demonstrations of the learning tasks; and (c) reexplaining difficult points. "A visual explanation assists students in following the learning process. At some later point, the visual representation serves as a cue or prompt" (Joyce, Weil, & Showers, 1992, p. 311).

More recent research studied the use of direct instruction as a practice strategy. According to Joyce et al. (1992), "over the years considerable research has been devoted to studying the role of practice in the acquisition of new knowledge and the conditions of practice which facilitate retention of information" (p. 313). The goal of practice is

mastery or the ability to perform a skill independently error-free.

As shown in Table 6, the direct instruction model is guided by the following principles: (a) shaping, (b) length of time, (c) monitoring, (d) level of accuracy, (e) distributed practice, and (f) appropriate practice time. It consists of five learning activity phases: (1) orientation, (2) presentation, (3) structured practice, (4) guided practice, and (5) independent practice. Joyce et al. (1992) concluded that this model "approaches academic content systematically. Its design is shaped to generate and sustain motivation through pacing and reinforcement. Through success and positive feedback, it tries to enhance self-esteem" (p. 318).

Table 6

Direct Instruction Model
Six Principles of Effective Practice

Principle	Objective/Activity
Shaping	The teacher moves the student through practice with different levels of assistance: lock-step or structure, semi-independent or guided, and independent or homework
Length of time	Short, intense, highly motivated practice periods produce more learning than fewer but longer practice periods
Moni- toring	The teacher monitors the initial stage of practice because incorrect performance at this stage interferes with learning
Level of accuracy	Paying attention to accuracy rates to ensure that students experience success and do not practice errors
Distri- buted practice	Sometimes referred to as multiple practice wherein sessions are spread out over a period of time (practice reinforces learning)
Appro- priate practice time	Practice periods should be close together at the beginning - guided practice sessions are spaced farther and farther apart with mastery of concept

Modeling

Modeling is matching behavior, and is often referred to as "imitation," "observational learning," or "social facilitation." Whether deliberately or inadvertently, human behavior is transmitted largely through exposure to social models. The earliest explanations of imitation (McDougall, 1908; Morgan, 1896; Tarde, 1903) regarded modeling as instinctual. After the instinct doctrine fell into dispute, psychologists portrayed modeling in terms of associative principles which "explained how previously learned behavior might be elicited by the actions of others" (Bandura, 1986, p. 8).

The associative principles did not adequately account for the fact that behavior is controlled by some social stimuli, but not by others that have been associated with equal frequency (Bandura, 1971). The emphasis in modeling then shifted to affective conditioning theory.

Modeling influences can serve as instructors, inhibitors, disinhibitors, facilitators (prompters), stimulus enhancers, and emotion arousers (Bandura, 1971, 1986). Modeling can teach component skills and provide rules for organizing them into new structure or behavior.

Illustrations of how behavior-guiding principles can be transmitted through modeling are provided in experiments designed to modify moral judgmental orientations (Bandura & McDonald, 1963; Cowan, Langer, Heavenrich, & Nathanson, 1969; Le Furgy & Woloshin, 1969); delay of gratification patterns (Bandura & Mischel, 1965; Stumphauzer, 1969); and styles of information-seeking (Rosenthal, Zimmerman & Durning, 1970).

There are four distinct subprocesses in the social learning view of observational learning (see Appendix C). However, as it relates to research on modeling and social learning behavior, and its application to the present study, only three (retention, production and motivation) are described. Retention: Studies conducted by Bandura & Adams (1977); Kazdin (1979) found that by having people visualize themselves executing activities skillfully raises their perceived efficacy and that they will also be able to perform better.

Production: In maximizing enactment tests, observers are explicitly encouraged to perform, with positive incentives and minimal constraints, all they have learned from models (Bandura, 1965b; Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966).

Motivational: Observers are motivated by external incentives which serve to selectively influence the observers' performance of the modeled behavior (Bandura & Barab, 1971).

There are certain characteristics which promote modeling, such as, similarity between the model and the observer as studied. For example, studies show that similarity in gender promotes modeling. Studies conducted by Huston (1983) and Bandura (1976) suggest that children pay attention to and imitate the behaviors of same-sex models, particularly if the models engage in a pattern of behavior that is appropriate for the child's gender. When studying how children pay attention to opposite-sex models, researchers found that children pay attention to opposite-sex models as well, and appear to be learning what is appropriate for both sexes through observation, even though they are more likely to imitate the behavior of same-sex models (Baron & Graziano, 1991).

Research has shown that observational learning is most likely to lead to overt imitation when the modeled behavior is reinforced (Bandura, 1976; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Perry & Bussey, 1979). The behaviors that others perform, as well as the consequences of

those behaviors, are then stored in the person's memory. At some later point, those memories are recalled, and the person imitates the behavior, especially if he or she thinks that engaging in this particular behavior will have positive consequences (Baron & Graziano, 1991).

Self-Efficacy

The power of modeling is enhanced by model characteristics signifying personal efficacy, which holds true in the transmission of high performance standards as well. Exemplified standards hold greater importance when models possess status (Akamatsu & Farudi, 1978) and social power (Mischel & Liebert, 1967; Grusec, 1971).

Bandura (1986) examined the self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. He found that research in this area has centered on people's sense of personal efficacy to exercise some control over events affecting their lives. It is not entirely surprising that self-insights are often accompanied by changes in behavior.

When beset with difficulties, people who are plagued by self-doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up altogether, whereas

those who have a strong sense of efficacy exert greater effort to master the challenge (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Brown & Inouye, 1978; Schunk, 1984b; Weinberg, Gould & Jackson, 1979). Perceived self-efficacy also shapes causal thinking (Collins, 1982).

Self-efficacy appraisals are partly influenced by vicarious experiences. Seeing or visualizing other people perform successfully can raise self-percepts of efficacy. The observer realizes that they too possess the capabilities to master comparable activities (Bandura, Adams, Hardy & Howells, 1980; Kazdin, 1979).

According to Baron & Graziano (1991), studies confirm that different modes of influence raise and strengthen self-percepts of efficacy. Behavior corresponds closely to the level of self-efficacy change, regardless of the method by which self-efficacy is enhanced. The higher the level of perceived self-efficacy, the greater the level of performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1986).

Self-efficacy has also been studied in relation to the principle of attribution theory. Attribution theory suggests that perceptions can influence what happens to people. Baron & Graziano (1991), for example, stated that "in contemporary models of

attribution theory, it is assumed that there are three dimensions along which attributions are made. The first dimension, internal versus external, refers to whether the causes of events are attributed to aspects of the person as opposed to the situation. The second dimension, stable versus unstable, refers to whether the causes are expected to persist or fluctuate over time. Finally, the third dimension, global versus specific, refers to whether the attribution has widespread or circumscribed implications" (p. 626).

The performance of others are often selected as standards for self-improvement of abilities. For this purpose, performers choose to compare themselves with proficient models possessing the competencies to which they aspire. The observers identify this behavior exhibited as having either intrinsic or extrinsic value. According to Bandura (1986), intrinsic is a factor perceived as having inherent reward or value rather than behavior performed for external value and extrinsic is a factor perceived as having external reward or value rather than behavior performed for inherent value.

Boyatzis (1982) found that in studies conducted to discover competencies related to managerial effectiveness, the competencies included several

personality traits which differentiated between effective and ineffective managers. Effective managers demonstrated a strong belief in self-efficacy and locus of control, as evidenced by behaviors, such as, initiating action (rather than waiting for things to happen), taking steps to circumvent obstacles, seeking information from a variety of sources, and accepting responsibility for success or failure. In addition, Yukl (1994) found that charismatic leaders with "high self-efficacy are willing to expend more effort and persist longer in overcoming obstacles to attain task objectives." He also found that when collective self-efficacy is high in organizations, "followers are more willing to cooperate with members of their group in a joint effort to carry out their collective missions." Therefore, "charismatic leaders increase the participation of the followers, so that their individual and collective efforts are likely to be successful" (p. 327).

Social psychological factors such as modeling, vicarious reinforcement, self-efficacy, and causal attribution can influence how well a person learns and adopts traits and skills. Self-efficacy has been consistently cited in the literature on leadership effectiveness. The impact of these factors is greatly

evidenced when the perception of behavior can be rewarding. The social cues transmitted by models influence the perception of one's control and performance. The observational and social learning theories discussed in this section tell us how we perceive ourselves, how others perceive us, and how these perceptions can be used in changing or improving attitudinal behavior.

Summary

A review of the literature led to a key conceptualization of the ideal or successful modern leader derived from the transformational leadership model. Only two models in the literature were found which attributes tend to encompass those similar to the transformational leadership models. Those two models were: Helgesen's (1990) principles of feminine leadership and Auberdene & Naisbitt's (1992) characteristics of women leadership. The gaps and omissions on studies developing African American women leaders were consistently substantiated. Therefore, the present study's examination of the effectiveness and application of these models to describe a successful African American female leader, is both timely and appropriate.

Generally, theorists have placed much emphasis on curricular interventions, such as, coaching/mentoring; feedback; attainment and practice of competencies; behavior modeling; and reinforcement based on the premise that people can be taught to become leaders, or taught to become more effective leaders. The review also supported that very little research has been conducted to identify the perceptions of intrinsic and extrinsic factors African American women leaders believe were important to their development. Moreover, by using the dimensions of leadership previously discussed, some components of a model describing the ideal African American woman leadership may be suggested. This new leadership model may be effectively facilitated and dramatized by using teaching strategies found in both the behavior and direct instruction models.

Based upon the literature review, this current study has broad implications for scholars and practitioners. Research shows that modeling and self-efficacy are two related curricular interventions or constructs. Particularly, the use of the direct instruction model can be used in the design of training programs or courses to transform, train, or otherwise prepare African American women for such

leadership roles. Likewise, the use of behavior modeling can be successfully used in training programs to build self-efficacy through visual representation of the task and learning objectives presented on video.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This chapter provides a description of the research procedure used to design and validate a leadership training program prototype for African American women under these major headings: (a) general research methodology; (b) specific procedures; (c) experimental design; (d) project elements; (e) prototype workshop; (f) research population; (g) instrumentation; (h) data collection; (i) data analysis procedures; (j) preliminary field-testing; and (k) limitations of the study.

General Research Methodology

The purpose of this study was to design and validate a leadership training program prototype for African American women. The general research methodology selected was educational research and development, because the researcher designed, implemented and evaluated a prototype workshop. This type of "investigation has been a valuable method when linked to appropriate problems, such as, the design and demonstration of personnel training curricula, professional educational programs, or instructional materials" (Mauch & Birch, 1989, pp.78-79). The

research methodology was also selected because it is conducive to qualitative and quantitative evaluations.

Educational research and development is a cyclic process consisting of at least 10 steps. For this study, the researcher used the modified plan as suggested by Borg & Gall (1989). They recommended that educational research and development dissertation studies be undertaken on a small-scale project basis, utilizing only the first six steps in that cycle. The dissertation study underwent several stages of development and was limited to these six steps:

- (1) gathering research and information, (2) planning,
- (3) development of preliminary form of product;
- (4) preliminary field-testing; (5) product revision;
- and (6) main field-testing.

Borg & Gall (1989) also recommended that educational research and development dissertation studies involve a limited amount of original instructional design. The product developed in this study was an intensive one-day prototype workshop on Planning and Organizing (refer to page 85). Activities performed by the researcher to design the prototype workshop curriculum included, but were not limited to: (a) determining learning goals and objectives; (b) selecting an instructional model;

(c) synthesizing training exercises (e.g., exercised produced by Yukl (1989, 1990); and (d) formulating a pretest-posttest and post-workshop evaluation. The researcher served as workshop facilitator. An independent observer served throughout the study, but was not a participant.

Specific Procedures

The study used a modified plan for educational research and development as outlined by Borg and Gall (1989) which grouped the six project steps into three major phases as shown in Figure 1.

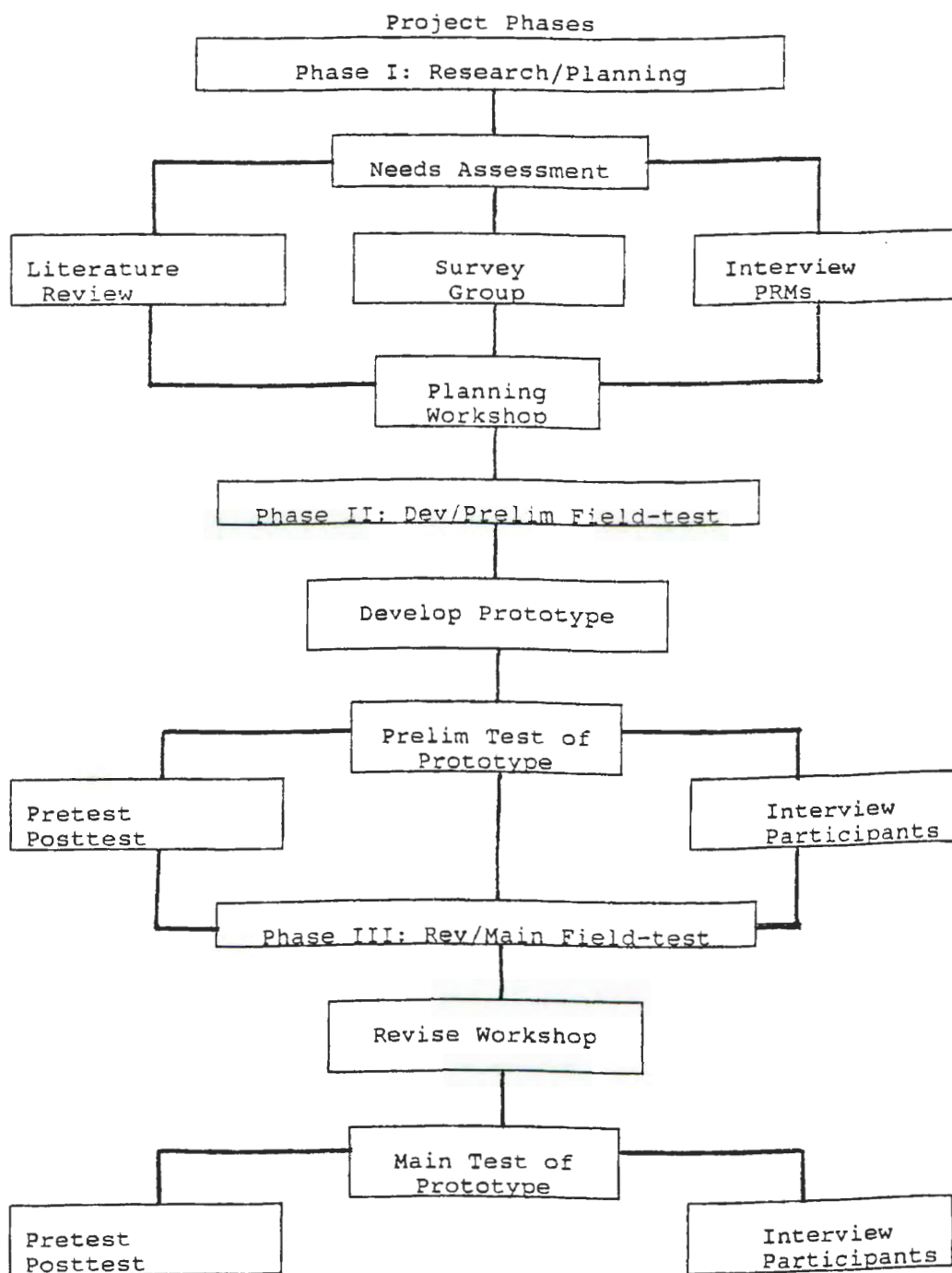
PHASE I: Research and Information, and Planning

Step 1: Research and Information

Task A: Needs Assessment

The needs assessment is usually the first step in the development of training programs and may sometimes become the "basis for curricular decision" (Gagne et al, 1988, p.23). The needs assessment process was completed by: (a) reviewing the literature; (b) administering the needs assessment survey-questionnaire to the cluster sampling group; and

Figure 1



(c) interviewing the project role models. Two studies cited in the literature used to develop the needs assessment survey-questionnaire (see Appendix E) were conducted by Yukl (1987, 1988) and Harvard's dissertation study in 1988.

Task B: Project Role Models' Interview

The project role models were members of the cluster sampling group who completed the needs assessment survey-questionnaire. They participated in a focus-group interview session which was video-taped.

Step 2: Planning

Tasks completed here included developing the prototype workshop on Planning and Organizing, the facilitator's manual, the participant's workbook (see Appendix D), workshop materials, post-workshop assignment, post-workshop evaluation, post-workshop interview-questionnaire, independent observer's evaluation-questionnaire, survey-questionnaire transmittal letters and workshop brochure. Other activities completed were: determining field-test participants, selecting and scheduling training sites, editing and transcribing the video-tape of the project role models' interview.

PHASE II: Preliminary Field-test of Prototype Workshop

Step 3: Development of the Prototype Workshop

The facilitator's manual and participant's workbook underwent editing and was packaged. The participant's workbook is contained in Appendix D.

Step 4: Preliminary Field-test of Prototype Workshop

The prototype workshop was subjected to a preliminary field-testing. Borg & Gall (1989) indicated that the "purpose of the preliminary field-test is to obtain an initial qualitative evaluation of the new educational product" (p. 790). Therefore, the "emphasis of this evaluation is based upon qualitative appraisal of course content rather than a quantitative appraisal of course outcomes" (p. 790). The objectives here were to: (a) evaluate the effectiveness of the prototype workshop; (b) ascertain the appropriateness of the design; and (c) generate information about the quality of the procedures used in the research design.

A pretest-posttest was administered to the participants. Each participant completed the post-workshop evaluation form at the conclusion of the workshop. Selected participants were interviewed by the researcher and independent observer. The

independent observer was an African American woman who is a training specialist and program evaluator employed in a federal government executive branch agency. She did not participate in the workshop; but, completed an evaluation-questionnaire and provided additional feedback about the prototype workshop on clinical notes.

The same procedures outlined above in the preliminary field-test were completed in the main field-test. The cluster sampling group members were not participants in the prototype workshop field-testings.

PHASE III: Main Field-test of Prototype Workshop

Step 5: Product Revision

The prototype workshop was reviewed based upon the evaluation of the preliminary field-test; only minor changes were made to the facilitator's manual and participant's workbook.

Step 6: Main Field-test of Prototype Workshop

Task A: Delivery of the Main Field-test Workshop

The prototype workshop was subjected to a main field-testing. The conditions and setting were similar to that of the preliminary field-testing.

Task B: Evaluation of Main Field-test Workshop

The purpose of the main field-test is to "determine whether the educational product under development meets its performance objectives. Generally, an experimental design is used to answer this question" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p.791). Correspondingly, the experimental design used in this study was the one-group, pretest-posttest design. Participants also completed a post-workshop evaluation and interview-questionnaire. Again, feedback was provided by the independent observer on the evaluation-questionnaire and clinical notes.

Experimental Design

The product developed in this study was a one-day prototype workshop on "planning and organizing," based on the direct instruction model. The skill, "planning and organizing" was rated the most important managerial behavior skill for leadership development by the cluster sampling group during the needs assessment process. The literature strongly suggests that leadership skills can be taught. But, no studies were found in the literature which specifically related to the use of the direct instruction model (see Chapter II, page 61) in leadership training

programs to prepare African American women. There were studies found which support that basic skill acquisition was promoted when students were subjected to this teaching model.

Therefore, it was hypothesized that the distribution of scores on the pretest and posttest measuring "planning and organizing" skill development, using the direct instruction model would differ in their mean at the $p < .05$ level. The statistical hypothesis stated that the distribution of scores on the pretest and posttest would be identical. The experimental design applied to test the hypothesis in this study was the one-group, pretest-posttest. The steps in this design are as follows: (1) the pretest is administered to a group measuring the dependent variable; (2) the group is exposed to the treatment; and (3) the posttest is administered measuring the dependent variable again. The dependent variable in this study was a test on "planning and organizing" skill development in two areas: strategic and operational (action) planning. The independent variable was the prototype workshop.

The scores from the pretest and posttest were subjected to several tests (refer to page 132) including Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test. The Wilcoxon

Matched-Pairs test is a nonparametric test which helps the researcher decide whether or not the distribution of scores in two independent groups were drawn from two identical population distributions. The problem then, is to determine the probability of observing differences between the distributions of scores in two independent groups, assuming the null hypothesis is true (Shavelson, 1988). The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test compares two correlated columns examining the direction and magnitude of differences between them (Dynamic Microsystems, Inc., 1990).

Project Elements

The purpose of this study was to design and validate a leadership training program prototype for African American women. Therefore, the following project elements were examined during the design, implementation and evaluation of the prototype workshop:

- a. to ascertain the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership and their understanding of how one obtains leadership status;
- b. to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified

- managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing African American women for leadership positions by surveying the cluster sampling group;
- c. to determine how modeling and self-efficacy constructs influence leadership development and training of African American women using the direct instruction model;
 - d. to design a prototype workshop curriculum, facilitator's manual and participant's workbook for training African American women; and
 - e. to implement the preliminary and main field-testing of the prototype workshop and evaluate both, making appropriate revisions.

Prototype Workshop

The prototype workshop - Planning and Organizing was a six and one-half hour intensive workshop. The design of the prototype workshop addressed project elements (d) and (e) above. The workshop was designed specifically for African American women employed in the federal government at the GS-7 through GS-13 grade levels, who are aspiring for leadership roles. The participant's workbook is provided in Appendix D;

however, the workshop goal statement, learning objectives, instructional plan using the direct instruction model, and materials are discussed below.

Goal Statement

The workshop was designed to provide participants with an opportunity to learn, explore, and share practical information on effective planning and organizing in two areas: strategic and operational (action) planning. The intensive workshop used the direct instruction model as a teaching tool. The instructional plan using this model is discussed below. In addition to small group discussions, participants were involved in role play and case study exercises. The curriculum also included a video presentation by the project role models who discussed how they plan and organize; explained how they make decisions; described their role models and the importance of having role models in the workplace; and discussed their leadership style, such as, participative and consultative management, visioning, and role modeling, to name a few.

As a result of the prototype workshop on Planning and Organizing, the participants acquired an understanding of: (a) how proper planning and

organizing ensures efficient organization of the work unit; (b) the different types of planning and their application to the organization and adaptation to their personal lives; (c) the techniques necessary to formulate, monitor and evaluate action steps and activities; and (d) the skills necessary to develop and evaluate an operational (action) plan.

Learning Objectives

The learning objectives communicated the instructional intent and specific learning outcomes.

The objectives were as follows:

- (1) The participants will be able to understand the importance of effective planning and organizing.
- (2) The participants will be able to define and explain two of the four types of planning: strategic and operational (action).
- (3) The participants will be able to distinguish between effective and ineffective planning and organizing behavior and cite two specific examples.
- (4) The participants will be able to list and explain the basic components of an operational (action) plan.
- (5) The participants will be able to acquire and practice the skills needed to develop and evaluate a plan of action by completing a post-workshop assignment.

Instructional Plan Using the Direct Instruction Model

Based on the direct instruction model, the instructional plan for the prototype workshop on "planning and organizing" encompassed these six major phases: (1) orientation; (2) presentation; (3) structured (whole group) practice; (4) group practice; (5) independent practice; and (6) wrap up. The facilitator and participants performed the following activities under each phase of the direct instruction model:

Phase One: Orientation

Facilitator	introduction of facilitator, independent observer, and participants
Facilitator	establishes content of workshop on "Planning and Organizing" and its relationship to prior knowledge and/or experience.
Facilitator	conducts a "Motivation Exercise."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.
Facilitator	discusses aspects and procedures of the workshop and participant's responsibilities.

Phase Two: Presentation

Facilitator	explains (lectures) new concept - "Planning and Organizing."
Facilitator	shows video of Project Role Models commenting on the importance of planning and organizing, and how they do it.
Facilitator	video recap and summarization of lecture.
Facilitator	conducts exercise - "Hidden Square."
Participants	discuss reactions and learning about the exercise.

Phase Two: Structured Group Practice (Whole Group)

Facilitator	conducts exercise - "The IX Exercise."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.
Facilitator	leads group through practice examples of both interpersonal and conceptual skills essential for planning and organizing - using the strategic planning wheel for the "Goal Setting/Action Planning Exercise."
Participants	respond to questions.
Facilitator	provides corrective feedback, reinforcing practice of skills.
Facilitator	provides video commentary from Project Role Models.

Phase Four: Group Practice

Facilitator	provides a group case study - "Planning Exercise."
Participants	practice in dyads using action planning concepts.
Participants	practice in whole group on the evaluation step of action planning.
Participants	explain their planning process and results.

Phase Five: Independent Practice - Organizational and Personal Planning

Facilitator	shows video
Facilitator	leads discussion on ways to effectively plan for the organization (extrinsic) and personal (intrinsic) goals.
Participants	completes a case study: "Sterling Products."
Facilitator	circulates, monitoring participant practice.
Participants	discuss reactions and learning about exercise.
Facilitator	provides feedback and reinforcement.

Phase Six: Wrap Up

Facilitator	shows final segment of video.
Facilitator	makes the post-workshop assignment - "A Planning and Organizing Time Management Exercise;" explains purpose and provides response date.
Facilitator	checks for understanding.

Facilitator	leads discussion on the day's activities and learnings.
Participants	give feedback on activities/learnings and other comments about the workshop.
Participants	complete the posttest and workshop evaluation form.
Facilitator	makes presentation to participants and appointments confirmed for selected personal interviews.

Materials

Each participant was provided a workbook (see Appendix D) which included these items: learning goals and objectives; text description on planning and organizing; glossary; reference list; charts (time-line/event calendar); sample activity network and planning wheel; role play and case study exercises; and a modified video-transcript from the project role models' interview session.

The facilitator's manual contained a copy of the participant's workbook and all handouts. Instructor notes relating to a particular topic or emphasis were prominently highlighted, such as, key questions which stimulated discussion. The instructor notes also indicated when it was appropriate to refer to or show the transparencies and the video. Handouts were copied onto a transparency for easy reference. The manual also contained answers to the pretest-posttest, exercises, post-workshop assignment, and case studies.

Research Population

The research population for this study was African American women who hold leadership positions or aspire to such positions within the federal government. These women come from varied socio-economic backgrounds, ages, educational levels, regions, etc. The research population which completed the needs assessment process was a cluster sampling of African American women at the senior executive service (SES) level who are employed in the executive branch of the federal government. Cluster sampling is a sampling process in which intact groups, not individuals, are randomly selected (Gay, 1992).

From among this group, three members served as project role models who also participated in a focus-group interview session which was video-taped and incorporated into the prototype workshop curriculum. The three project role models (two deputy assistant secretaries, and a deputy administrator) were located at their agency's headquarter office. Two of them supervised more than one hundred employees, the other supervised less than one hundred employees. One held a political appointment while the others held federal career status. Two of them were appointed or selected

to the SES level during the term of 1990-94 and the other was appointed or selected during the term of 1986-90. One project role model entered the federal service at the SES level while the others entered at the GS-1-6 and GS-7-12 grade levels. The master's degree was the highest level of education attained by each project role model. All of them were between the ages of 46-55 years of age, married and have children. The project role models and other members of the cluster sampling group were not participants in the prototype workshop.

Participants in the main field-testing were 24 members of an intact group of African American women who aspire to positions of leadership and were employed at the GS-7 through GS-13 grade levels in an executive branch agency in the Washington, D. C. area. This agency was referred to the researcher by officials of the U.S. Office of Personnel Management.

Instrumentation

Several instruments were used in the study. The instruments were developed to assist the researcher in designing, implementing and evaluating the prototype workshop. A description of each follows.

Needs Assessment Survey-Questionnaire: The needs assessment survey-questionnaire was used as a formative evaluation addressing project element (b) which was to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing African American women for leadership positions by surveying the cluster sampling group. The studies conducted by Yukl (1987, 1988) and Harvard's dissertation study in 1988 were used to develop the needs assessment survey-questionnaire. The researcher first defined each leadership skill provided by Harvard (1988). Next, Harvard's listing was compared to Yukl's listing; the overlapping ones were eliminated. The remaining skills were then integrated into Yukl's four main categories. As a result 14 managerial behavior skills emerged (see Table 7).

A panel of experts was established consisting of five African American women leaders who are employed at the senior level in the legislative branch of the federal government. These women were referred to the researcher by the independent observer. The panel of experts reviewed both Harvard and Yukl's listing and recommended approval of the researcher's newly

Table 7

Integrated Listing of Managerial
Behavior Skills

Building and Maintaining Relationships

Networking

Supporting

Managing conflict and team building

Dealing with racism*

Dealing with sexism*

Influencing People

Motivating

Recognizing and rewarding

Making Decisions

Planning and organizing

Problem solving

Risk-taking*

Collecting and Disseminating Information

Consulting and delegating

Monitoring operations and environment

Informing

Clarifying roles and objectives

Note: (*) Integrated from Harvard's listing into
Yukl's framework.

developed integrated listing of managerial behavior skills for examination in this study.

The needs assessment survey-questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete and was divided into three sections (see Appendix E). The first section was devoted to demographic data. In Section two, the definition for each of the 14 managerial behavior skills was provided. An interval scale measure was used to determine the level of intrinsic value of each skill. To determine the level of intrinsic value, the respondents rated each skill on a scale ranging from 1 (low) to 5 (high), and to determine the level of extrinsic value, the respondents rated each skill on a scale ranging from 6 (low) to 10 (high). Section Three dealt with priority ranking of each managerial behavior skill on an ordinal scale of 1 to 14 (1 having the highest rating). The survey-questionnaire was also used to elicit information requisite to the development of the prototype workshop's goals and learning objectives.

Pretest-Posttest: The same panel of experts, referenced above also reviewed and pretested the study's pretest-posttest which took approximately 15 minutes to complete (see Appendix F). The highest

possible score was 100. The pretest-posttest addressed project element (e) which was to implement the preliminary and main-field testing of the prototype workshop and evaluate both, making appropriate revisions. The pretest-posttest was a 15 multiple-choice test divided into three sections testing knowledge and abilities about strategic and operational (action) planning, effective and ineffective planning, and the planning implementation process.

Post-workshop evaluation form: This form was also used to evaluate the workshop addressing project element (e). The form was divided into two parts (see Appendix G). Part I contained closed questions based on a Likert-type scale (numerical rating of 1 to 5). Five is the highest rating (strongly agree) and one is the lowest rating (strongly disagree). Two open-ended questions were asked in Part II: (a) the aspect of the workshop that I liked most; and (b) the aspect of the workshop that I liked least. The final question in Part II sought an overall rating of the prototype workshop on a rating scale: excellent, good, fair, poor and no answer.

Post-workshop interview-questionnaire: The post-workshop interview questionnaire was also used to address project element (e). The last three participants who submitted their posttest to the researcher at the end of each field-testing were interviewed by telephone. The interview was conducted by telephone by the researcher and was approximately 30 minutes in length. A questionnaire was used to facilitate the interview process and consisted of 10 closed and open-ended questions on participants' perceptions about the workshop (see Appendix H). A rating scale was devised to assist in assessing the responses. Although the first question required a specific response, a numerical rating was used to record the number of objectives recalled. Responses to questions 2, 4-9 were assigned a rating of: (a) not at all, (b) little, (c) medium amount, (d) well represented, and (e) exactly. For question 3, the response was rated: (a) not at all, (b) little, (c) satisfactory only, (d) very well, and (e) exactly.

Post-workshop assignment: Project element (e) was also examined through the post-workshop assignment which was completed by each participant immediately after each workshop. The post-workshop assignment

provided a synthesis of learned material appraising the participant's knowledge and skill development. The assignment (see Appendix I) was a planning and time management exercise constructed by Yukl (1989) and was reprinted from his textbook, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases and Exercises (1990). The participants were given only 30 minutes to plan and organize for the next work day's activities. The in-basket exercise contained twenty activities: scheduling of meetings, writing memoranda, delegating items, and making telephone contacts.

Independent observer evaluation-questionnaire: The independent observer completed an evaluation-questionnaire at the conclusion of each field-testing. The information drawn from this questionnaire provided another examination of project element (e). The evaluation-questionnaire was divided into two parts (see Appendix J). Part I had 18 questions and the response was based on a rating scale: (a) poor, (b) fair, (c) good, (d) above average, and (e) excellent. These questions sought additional information about the subject content, teaching, training method, video, handouts and facilitates. Part II consisted of two open-ended questions which were: (a) the aspect of the

workshop I liked most; and (b) the aspect of the workshop I liked least was.

Data Collection

Data were collected from a number of sources and the procedures used in gathering data were as follows:

Initially, data were gathered through the needs assessment process. The researcher entered into an agreement (see Appendix K) with officials of the U.S. Office of Personnel Management to conduct the survey. They mailed the cover letter (see Appendix M), survey-questionnaire and return envelope to the cluster sampling group members (SES African American women in the executive branch of the federal government) through their personnel headquarters office.

The project role models who were selected from among the cluster sampling group participated in a focus-group interview examining project element (a) which was to ascertain the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership and their understanding of how one obtains leadership status; and provided additional information regarding project element (b) namely, to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing

African American women for leadership positions. Although the interview session was semi-structured, 18 questions were asked of the project role models (see Chapter IV, page 123 for the list of questions). The project role models' responses which yielded additional data about the workshop topic, Planning and Organizing; decision-making skills; role modeling; self-efficacy; and leadership styles and behaviors (see Appendix L), to name a few.

Data about the field-test participants were gathered from the prototype workshop registration forms on brochures which were posted throughout the facilities. Completed registration forms were returned to the researcher prior to each field-testing. Confirmations were conducted by telephone.

Data gathered during the field-testings of the prototype workshop were as follows:

1. The pretest-posttest was administered to the field-test participants on the day of the workshop.
2. The post-workshop evaluation form was collected at the conclusion of the prototype workshop.

3. The post-workshop assignment was completed and returned after the prototype workshop.
4. Responses to the participant's post-workshop interview-questionnaire was annotated by the researcher. The telephone interview was conducted when the completed post-workshop assignments were returned.
5. The independent observer's evaluation form and clinical notes (see Appendices N and O) were collected after the workshops.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis procedures utilized in the dissertation project are explained below. All data were processed using GB-Stat Version 2.0 (1990) by Dynamic Microsystems, Inc.

As needs assessment survey-questionnaires were returned (see Appendix E), a code (CS-01, CS-02...CS-54) was assigned to each and the responses were recorded on a separate coding sheet. Secondly, data from Section One dealt with categorical data and those responses were converted to numerical values, e.g., age-01 (25-35); age-02 (36-45). Next, the responses

from Section Two were recorded to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value for each managerial behavior skills. The data were analyzed by frequency distributions and means. Fourth, aggregate and mean scores from the data in Section Three were computed to determine the level of importance for each managerial behavior skill and determine the prototype workshop topic.

Finally, the coding sheets were reviewed to identify members of the cluster sampling group who were interested in participating as project role models. Content analysis was conducted on the project role models' responses (see Appendix M) to the questions posed during the focus-group interview session. The data was analyzed to address project elements (a) and (b), namely to ascertain the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership and their understanding of how one obtains leadership status; and to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing African American women for leadership positions.

The pretest-posttest (see Appendix F) was first graded for correct responses; 5 points were awarded for each correct response for a maximum score of 100

total points. The scores were then recorded on a coding sheet for each test and analyzed by computing gain scores, group mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variations, and a Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test. This nonparametric test determines the difference in means and compares two independent means examining the direction and magnitude of differences between them (Shavelson, 1988).

The post-workshop assignment (Appendix I) was graded for correct responses (100 highest possible points), and analyzed by group mean score and standard deviation. Data drawn from closed questions on post-workshop evaluations (see Appendix G); interview-questionnaires (see Appendix H); and independent observer's evaluation-questionnaire (see Appendix J) were analyzed by computing the frequency distribution, mean scores and standard deviation. Cross tabulation and content analysis were conducted on open-ended questions from post-workshop evaluation form; post-workshop interview-questionnaire; and independent observer's clinical notes (see Appendices N and O).

Preliminary Field-test

The prototype workshop was initially presented in the preliminary field-test. Eight (8) African

American women from an intact-group in the legislative branch participated. The prototype workshop was six and one-half hours in duration. Appropriate time was allowed for morning and afternoon breaks and a lunch period. The evaluation of the preliminary field-test and the revisions to the prototype workshop are explained in this section.

The participants found that the content and materials of the workbook were useful in meeting the stated goals and objectives. Overall, they rated the workshop as "good." However, they suggested several recommendations to improve the quality of the workbook and the facilitator's manual was revised, accordingly. Specific recommendations were: (a) the agenda and content page should be added to the workbook; (b) the discussion on action planning and other text should be provided in the first section of the workbook; and (c) the post-workshop assignment should also be made available as a hand-out.

The participants favored the informal setting of the prototype workshop but, suggested that the break-out room be located closer to the main meeting room. No recommendations were made about the teaching strategy - direct instruction model. Using the video presentation as part of the teaching strategy was

favorably rated; however, some would have preferred more examples about overcoming racism and sexism obstacles.

The opening or motivational exercise was replaced with a less formal ice-breaker. The other exercises were found suitable and consistent with the prototype workshop's goal and objectives. The participants suggested that both oral and written evaluations be conducted at the conclusion of the workshop. No revisions were made to the post-workshop assignment and the pretest-posttest.

The independent observer noted that the agenda should be posted during the workshop. She suggested that unfamiliar terms used by the project role models should be explained or added to the list of useful terms, i.e., "synergy." She found the researcher's impromptu questions on leadership style following the video discussions more useful than the prepared recap questions. She too, determined the prototype workshop sufficient in meeting the stated goals and learning objectives. The independent observer agreed with the revisions to the prototype workshop suggested by the preliminary field-test participants. The time for in-depth discussion after each exercise was lengthened by shortening the breaks. The morning and afternoon

breaks were reduced from 20 minutes to 10 minutes each but the lunch period remained an hour long.

Based upon the preliminary field-test participants' and independent observer's evaluations, the researcher revised the prototype workshop format. The facilitator's manual and participant's workbook were repackaged and prepared for the main field-testing.

Limitations of the Study

The present research study does not attempt to identify and examine all of the skills African American women need to develop for leadership. Instead, it has focused on fourteen managerial behavior skills from which one was singled out as the most important skill for leadership development. In addition, the study was limited to the design, implementation and evaluation of a one-day workshop using the one group, pretest-posttest experimental design which controlled for a number of internal and external validity factors, but the external validity factor of pretest interaction as described by Gay (1992) was not controlled.

Another limitation was the size of the project role models group which consisted of three members;

however, using a smaller number did not diminish the researcher's ability to fully examine the project elements. The size of the preliminary and main-field testing participants was limited to 8 and 24, respectively to keep the study manageable and within the confines of federal government training regulations which allow only one day of approved absence for non-appropriated training.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of the Data

This chapter describes the analysis and findings of the data collected during the study. Analysis of the data begins with the outcomes of the needs assessment, including the project role models' focus-group interview session. Then data gathered during the main-field test are presented. The results of the analysis are reported in narrative form and tables.

Needs Assessment

Needs Assessment Survey-Questionnaire

The survey-questionnaire consisting of three sections was completed by 55 members of the cluster sampling group (SES African American women in the executive branch of the federal government). However, one was excluded from analysis because it arrived after the main field-testing. The cluster sampling group members were not participants in the field-testings of the prototype workshop.

Section One

Section One reports the demographic profile of respondents providing descriptive information about the location of their position, number of employees supervised, federal service status, appointment or

selection to the SES by term, grade level upon entering federal service, highest level of education, age, marital status, and children.

Location of Position

As shown in Table 8, approximately, 46 (85%) are positioned in their agency's headquarters, the other 8 (15%) are located in a field agency position.

Number of Employees Supervised

As illustrated in Table 9, of those respondents, 35 (65%) supervise less than 100 employees. Those supervising more than 100 employees were 19 (35%).

Federal Service Status

Table 10 shows that those holding career status were 41 (76%), while those having political status were 19 (24%).

Appointment or Selection to SES by Term

As shown in Table 11, 31 (57%) were appointed or selected during the term 1990-94; 11 (20%) during term the 1986-90; 8 (15%) during the term 1980-85; and 3 (5%) during the term 1978-79. Three respondents did not respond.

Grade Level Upon Entering Federal Service

Table 12 illustrates the grade level of respondents upon entering federal service. Those entering at the GS-13 grade level or higher were 21

(39%). Of those remaining, 16 (30%) entered at the GS-7-12 grade levels and 15 (28%) entered at the GS-1-6 grade levels. Two (3%) respondents did not respond.

Highest Level of Education

The highest level of education is represented in Table 13. Approximately, 16 (30%) of the cluster sampling group held a master's degree, 14 (26%) held a bachelor's or J.D. degree, 7 (13%) held a doctorate and 3 (5%) were high school graduates.

Age

Table 14 shows that 28 (52%) range from age 46-55, 19 (35%) range from age 36-45, 4 (8%) range from age 56-65 and 3 (5%) range from age 25-35.

Marital Status

Table 15 illustrates that 30 (56%) respondents are married, 14 (26%) are divorced, 9 (18) are single and none are separated.

Children

As shown in Table 16, 45 (82%) have children and 9 (18%) have no children.

Table 8

Location of Respondent Position

Location	N	%
Headquarters	46	85
Field	8	15
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 9

Number of Employees Supervised by Respondents

Number	N	%
Less than 100	35	65
More than 100	19	35
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 10

Federal Service Status of Respondents

Status	N	%
Career	41	76
Non-Career	0	
Political	13	24
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 11

Appointment or Selection to SES by Term Period for Each Respondent

Term Stratified	N	%
1978-89	3	5
1980-85	8	15
1986-90	11	20
1991-94	31	57
No Response	1	3
Total	54	100

Table 12

Grade Level of Respondents Upon Entering Federal Service

Grade Level Stratified	N	%
GS-1-6	15	28
GS-7-12	16	30
GS-13 and above	21	39
No Response	2	3
Total	54	100

Table 13

Highest Level of Education by Respondents

Level	N	%
High School	3	5
Bachelor's	14	26
Master's	16	30
Doctorate	7	13
J.D.	14	26
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 14

Age of Respondents

Age Stratified	N	%
25-35	3	5
36-45	19	35
46-55	28	52
56-65	4	8
No response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 15

Marital Status of Respondents

status	N	%
single	9	18
Married	30	56
Divorced	14	26
Separated	0	
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Table 16

Children Reported by Respondents

Children	N	%
Yes	45	82
No	9	18
No Response	0	
Total	54	100

Section Two

Data from this section dealt with the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each of the 14 managerial behavior skills as determined by the respondents.

Level of Intrinsic Value

In Table 17, the percentage of response for each managerial behavior skill is shown. "Dealing with racism" and "dealing with sexism" were rated by all but one respondent (98%), followed by "supporting" (96%), "monitoring operations and environment" (95%) and "motivating" (93%). Fifty (91%) respondents rated "managing conflict and team building," "recognizing and rewarding," "planning and organizing," "problem-solving," risk-taking," and "consulting and delegating." "Networking" and "clarifying roles and objectives" were rated by 49 (89%) respondents. The managerial behavior skill, "informing" was rated by the least number of respondents (87%). "Dealing with racism" ($\bar{x}=4.75$) held the highest level of intrinsic value. "Dealing with sexism" ($\bar{x}=3.75$) held the lowest level of intrinsic value.

Table 17

Number of Respondents and Mean Scores From Section Two
by Level of Intrinsic Value of Each Managerial
Behavior Skill

<u>Skill</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Networking	48	4.10
Supporting	52	4.63
Managing Conflict & Team Building	49	4.55
Dealing with Racism	53	4.75
Dealing with Sexism	53	3.75
Motivating	50	4.42
Recognizing & Rewarding	49	4.61
Planning & Organizing	49	4.36
Problem-solving	49	4.55
Risk-taking	49	4.26
Consulting & Delegating	49	3.97
Monitoring Operations & Environment	51	3.94
Informing	47	4.25
Clarifying Roles & Objectives	48	3.92

Note. Ranked on a scale of 1 to 5 (5 being the highest).

Level of Extrinsic Value

Table 18 shows the Data on the level of extrinsic value. The percentage of response for each managerial behavior skill structures shows that "informing" was rated by all 55 (100%) respondents and 54 (98%) respondents rated "supporting." The next most rated by the respondents were "managing conflict and team building," "recognizing and rewarding," "planning and organizing," "problem-solving," and "consulting and delegating" rated by 53 (96%) respondents followed by "clarifying roles and objectives" which was rated by 52 (95%) respondents. "Motivating," "risk-taking," and "monitoring operations" were rated by 51 (93%) of the respondents. "Supporting" was rated by 50 (91%) respondents while "dealing with racism" and "dealing with sexism" were rated by 49 (89%), the least number of respondents. "Problem-solving" ($\bar{x}=9.40$) held the highest level of extrinsic value, while "supporting" ($\bar{x}=8.04$) held the lowest.

Table 18

Number of Respondents and Mean Scores From Section Two
by Level of Extrinsic Value of Each Managerial
Behavior Skill

<u>Skill</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Networking	53	8.66
Supporting	49	8.04
Managing Conflict & Team Building	52	9.19
Dealing with Racism	48	8.41
Dealing with Sexism	48	8.39
Motivating	50	9.04
Recognizing & Rewarding	52	9.13
Planning & Organizing	52	9.34
Problem-solving	52	9.40
Risk-taking	50	8.46
Consulting & Delegating	52	8.94
Monitoring Operations & Environment	50	8.90
Informing	54	8.97
Clarifying Roles & Objectives	51	9.11

Note. Ranked on a scale of 6 to 10 (10 being the highest).

Section Three

All respondents completed Section three. Each managerial behavior skill structure was ranked (1 is high and 14 is low) which determined their overall level of importance for leadership development. Table 19 shows the aggregate scores. "Planning and organizing" ($\bar{x}=2.04$) was rated as the most important managerial behavior skill structure for leadership development and "dealing with sexism" ($\bar{x}=12.07$) was the least important as shown in Table 20.

Table 19

Aggregate Scores and Ranking in Terms of Importance
from Section Three

<u>Rank Order</u>	<u>Skill</u>	<u>Scores</u>
(1)	Planning and Organizing	210
(2)	Clarifying Roles and Objectives	272
(3)	Managing Conflict and Team Building	290
(4)	Consulting and Delegating	293
(5)	Problem-solving	321
(6)	Motivating	361
(7)	Monitoring Operations and Environment	389
(8)	Recognizing and Rewarding	395
(9)	Informing	429
(10)	Risk-taking	452
(11)	Supporting	473
(12)	Dealing with Racism	575
(13)	Networking	597
(14)	Dealing with Sexism	651

Table 20

Number of Respondents and Mean Scores From Section Three

<u>Skill</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Networking	53	8.66
Supporting	49	8.04
Managing Conflict & Team Building	52	9.19
Dealing with Racism	48	8.41
Dealing with Sexism	48	8.39
Motivating	50	9.04
Recognizing & Rewarding	52	9.13
Planning & Organizing	52	9.34
Problem-solving	52	9.40
Risk-taking	50	8.46
Consulting & Delegating	52	8.94
Monitoring Operations & Environment	50	8.90
Informing	54	8.97
Clarifying Roles & Objectives	51	9.11

Note. Ranked on a scale of 6 to 10 (10 being the highest).

Project Role Models

Three cluster sampling group members served as project role models during the study. The project role models participated in a video-taped focus-group interview session (see Appendix M) which was incorporated into the curriculum. The questions asked were:

- (1) How do you define leadership?
- (2) How does that definition distinguish or differentiates from what you believe the African American woman leader would be?
- (3) Are you a visionary leader and how has that helped you?
- (4) What is your perception about participative or consultative management?
- (5) Does setting goals organize your day?
- (6) During the day, do you plan much of it or is it spontaneous?
- (7) What is your viewpoint on clarifying roles and objectives?
- (8) Are your subordinates taking ownership for decisions, sharing in the vision, etc.?
- (9) Why do you suppose the skill decision-making was the third most important skill?
- (10) Are most of your decisions made in a consultative manner, knowing that ultimately you are the leader?
- (11) Would you describe yourselves as risk-takers?
- (12) We discuss the top three skills, what would you venture as the fourth?

- (13) Did you have a role model coming along? If so, tell us about your role model(s)?
- (14) Do you believe that you are a role model?
- (15) Is your sense of self-efficacy high or low?
- (16) How has being an African American woman leader, affected your leadership development?
- (17) Can we train African American women to become leaders? What would or would not be beneficial?
- (18) Complete the sentence, to African American women aspiring to leadership positions, I would say...?

Content analysis was conducted showing their comments (see Appendix M) focused on these areas: (a) definition of leadership; (b) planning and organizing; (c) clarification of roles and responsibilities; (d) problem-solving; (e) role modeling; (f) self-efficacy; and (g) leadership style and development.

Main Field-Test

Twenty-four (24) African American women from an intact-group in an executive branch agency in the Washington metropolitan area participated in the main-field testing of the prototype workshop. This section discusses the analysis of data gathered during the main-field test: (a) demographic profile of participants; (b) results from the pretest-posttest; (c) post-workshop evaluation; (d) post-workshop interview-questionnaire; (e) independent observer's evaluation-questionnaire; and post-workshop assignment.

Participant's Demographic Profile

The demographic profile was gathered from data provided by the participants at the time of registration. Participants supplied their grade level, supervisory or managerial experience and prior leadership development or planning and organizing training.

Grade Level of Main Field-test Participants

The grade levels of these participants presented in Table 21 shows that 3 (12%) were at the GS-7 grade level; 4 (17%) were at the GS-9 grade level; 5 (21%) were at the GS-11 grade level; 10 were (42%) at the GS-12 grade level; and 2 (8%) were GS-13 grade level.

Supervisory or Managerial Experience

The majority did not hold supervisory or managerial positions as shown in these results:

	Yes	No
Supervisory or Managerial	7	17

Prior Training

The majority of participants had prior training on planning and organizing. Of those, 14 (58%) reported prior planning and organizing training and 10 (42%) reported none as indicated in these results:

	Yes	No
Leadership Development	24	0
Planning & Organizing	14	10

Table 21

Grade Level of Main Field-test Participants

Grade Level	N	%
GS-7	3	12
GS-9	4	17
GS-11	5	21
GS-12	10	42
GS-13	2	8
Total	24	100

Pretest-Posttest

The pretest-posttest contained 15 questions and the highest possible score was 100. The data were subjected to several analyses and are reported by: scores and gain scores; frequency distributions; group mean, sample standard deviation, sample variance and coefficient of variation; and Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test results.

Scores and Gain Scores by Participant

As shown in Table 22, the total combined points for the pretest was 1,345 and the posttest total was 1,860, representing a "combined gain" of 530 points (pretest minus posttest). The "average gain" was 22.08 points (or 530 points divided by 24 participants). Posttest scores for two (2) participants (8.4%) were lower; one participant regressed by 5 points and the other regressed by 20 points. The two participants who had regressed scores were among the three (3) who scored 80 points (highest) on the pretest. The data shows that 91.6% of the participants scored higher on the posttest than on the pretest.

Frequency Distributions

Tables 23 and 24 present the distributions of pretest and posttest scores. As presented, 25% of the

participants scored between 54-62 and 72-80 points on the pretest, while 4.17% scored between 27-35 points. As shown, 41.67% of the participants scored between 80-89 points on the posttest, while 8.33 % scored 50-59 or 70-79 points.

Group Means, Standard Deviations, Sample Variances and Coefficient of Variations

As shown in Table 25, the mean score for the posttest was (77.50) and the mean score for the pretest was (56.04).

Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test

Table 26 presents the results of the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test in a single table. The distribution of the scores on the pretest and posttest differed at the $p < .05$ level. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test is a nonparametric test which determines the difference in means and compares two independent means examining the direction and magnitude of differences between them (Shavelson, 1988). As shown, 22 was the negative difference and 2 was the positive difference. The sum of ranks were 286 for the negative difference and 14 for the positive difference, which was the test value.

Table 22

Scores and Gain Scores by Participant

Parti- cipant	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	80	75	-5
2	40	50	+10
3	80	95	+15
4	45	60	+15
5	25	55	+30
6	60	75	+15
7	60	85	+25
8	45	90	+45
9	55	65	+10
10	60	90	+30
11	80	60	-20
12	75	85	+10
13	70	85	+15
14	75	95	+20
15	30	90	+60
16	60	80	+20
17	45	60	+15
18	65	80	+25
19	50	85	+35
20	60	85	+25
21	45	85	+40
22	40	65	+25
23	75	85	+10
24	25	80	+65
Totals	1,345	1,860	+530

Table 23

Frequency Distribution of Pretest Scores

<u>Class Interval</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 8	0	0
9 - 17	0	0
18 - 26	2	8.33
27 - 35	1	4.17
36 - 44	2	8.33
45 - 53	5	20.83
54 - 62	6	25
63 - 71	2	8.33
72 - 80	6	25
81 - 89	0	0
> 90	0	0

Table 24

Frequency Distribution of Posttest Scores

<u>Class Interval</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 9	0	0
10 - 19	0	0
20 - 29	0	0
30 - 39	0	0
40 - 49	0	0
50 - 59	2	8.33
60 - 69	5	20.83
70 - 79	2	8.33
80 - 89	10	41.67
90 - 99	5	20.83
> 100	0	0

Table 25

Means, Sample Standard Deviations, Sample Variances,
and Coefficient of Variations by Pretest-Posttest

Test	Size	Mean	Sample Std Dev	Sample Variance	Coef. of Variation
Pre	24	56.04	17.19	295.60	.30679
Post	24	77.50	13.19	173.91	.17016

Table 26

Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Test

<u>Differences</u>	Number	Sum of Ranks
Negative (-)	22	286
Positive (+)	2	* 14
None	0	
Sample Size (N)	24	

Significance Test

Corrected For Ties		
* Test Value	Z-Value	2-Tailed p
14	-3.8857	.05

Matched Pairs Biserial R = .9067

Post-Workshop Evaluation Form

All participants completed the evaluation at the conclusion of the prototype workshop. Fourteen (14) closed questions were evaluated on a scale of 1 to 5 (strongly disagree to strongly agree). An overall rating (excellent, good, fair, poor, and no answer) of the prototype workshop was provided by main field-test participants. The analysis of data is reported by the frequency of ratings for closed questions and overall rating. Additionally, cross-tabulation and content analysis were conducted on the open questions.

The results are as follows:

- . Fifteen (62.5%) indicated they "strongly agreed" that the subject and objectives of the workshop were clearly presented, while 9 (37.5) "moderately agreed."

- . The content of the workshop was useful in achieving the objectives was "strongly agreed" by 16 (66.7%) of the participants and "moderately agreed" by 8 (33.3%).

- . The materials were useful in achieving the objectives was "strongly agreed" by 14 (58.4%), 8 (33.3%) "moderately agreed," and 3 (8.3%) "agreed."
- . Seventeen (70.8%) indicated they "strongly agreed" that the lectures were clearly presented and understandable and 6 (25.0%) "moderately agreed," while one (4.2%) "agreed."
- . Thirteen (51.2%) "strongly agreed" that new words and terms were clearly explained and related to the objectives, while 9 (37.5%) "moderately agreed" and 2 (11.3%) "agreed."
- . Twelve (50.0%) "strongly agreed" that the information was appropriate for leadership development and training, while 9 (37.5%) "moderately agreed" and 3 (12.5%) "agreed."
- . The training method or approach was appropriate and useful was "strongly agreed" by 16 (66.6%) of the participants,

"moderately agreed" by 4 (16.7%) and "agreed" by 4 (16.7%).

. Eleven (45.8%) "strongly agreed" that the video (visual representation of the task was appropriate while 4 (16.7%) "moderately agreed" or "agreed."

. Eleven (45.8%) "strongly agreed" that a good, clear and specific summary (strong conclusion) was provided, while 9 (37.5%) "moderately agreed" and 4 (16.7%) "agreed."

. The entire workshop was the appropriate length was "strongly agreed" by 12 (50%), "moderately agreed" by 8 (33.3%) and "agreed" by 3 (12.5%).

. Eleven (45.8%) "strongly agreed" that the materials related to real life experiences, while 10 (41.7%) "moderately agreed" and 3 (12.5%) "agreed."

. The workshop information will be valuable to my organization was rated as "strongly

agree" by 14 (58.4%), "moderately agree" by 8 (33.3%) and "agree" by 2 (11.3%).

- . Nineteen (79.2%) "strongly agreed" that the facilitator was well prepared and 5 (20.8%) "moderately agreed."
- . The facilities (or logistics) were conducive to learning was rated "strongly agree" by 20 (83.3%) and "moderately agree" by 4 (16.7%).
- . Overall, the workshop was rated "excellent" by 16 (66.7%) of the participants. Eight (33.3%) rated the prototype workshop as above average.

Cross-tabulation of comments provided by these participants showed what they liked or disliked in these three major areas: (a) the training method, (b) appropriateness for leadership development and training, and (c) the video presentation. Content analysis was also conducted on their written comments showing what they liked or disliked around these three themes: (a) class participation, (b) instructor, and (c) materials.

Post-workshop Interview-Questionnaire

Three (12.5%) participants were interviewed by telephone using the post-workshop interview questionnaire. Nine (9) closed questions were evaluated using two scales. The analysis of data is reported by the frequency of ratings for the closed questions, and content analysis of the open questions was conducted.

The results are as follows:

- . The first question, "what were the objectives of the workshop" required the respondent to state the specific learning objectives. One participant recalled 3 (60%) objectives correctly, the others recalled 2 (40%) objectives correctly.

- . Did these objectives represent the true training need on your job for aspiring leader, 2 (67%) indicated the objectives fairly represented their true training need, and one (33%) indicated "well represented."

- . How well did the workshop achieve its goal was rated "very well" by all. Two (67%) stated "little" could be left out of the workshop and one (33%) stated "not at all."
- . The respondents were equally tied on these ratings: what could be added (included) to the workshop and what could be given less time. Each respondent stated that more time was needed for the workshop (one-day was not enough).
- . All respondents indicated that the workshop content related to what they already know.
- . Two (67%) respondents felt they were given sufficient opportunity to ask questions and one (33%) felt "almost always."

Content analysis was conducted on the written comments made by these participants. The results were grouped around three areas: (a) class participation: group interaction was important, team development, and group activities; (b) instructor: well prepared, motivated and knowledgeable; and (c) materials: handouts, video, exercises were useful.

Independent Observer's Evaluation-Questionnaire

The evaluation-questionnaire was completed by the independent observer and was divided into two parts with 18 closed questions rated as (a) poor; (b) fair; (c) good; (d) above average; and (e) excellent. The analysis of data is reported by the frequency of ratings for closed questions, and content analysis was conducted on the open questions.

The results show that the following 11 (61%) elements were rated "excellent" by the independent observer:

- . the subject and objectives of the workshop were clearly presented;
- . there was an adequate discussion about the goals and objectives of the field-test workshop;
- . all needed supplies were assembled, course materials prepared and explained, where necessary;
- . there was an effective and stimulating motivation displayed by the facilitator;
- . the materials were useful in achieving the objectives and relevant for the discussions;

- . the lectures were clearly presented and understandable;
- . new words and terms were clearly explained and related to the objectives;
- . the information was appropriate for leadership development and training;
- . the video segments on the Project Role Models corresponded with the lesson's objectives and/or learning tasks;
- . the training method -- direct instruction was appropriate and useful;
- . the materials related to real life experiences; and
- . the facilitator provided sufficient time to respond to participants' reactions and questions.

The following six (34%) elements were rated "above average" by the independent observer:

- . the content of the workshop was useful in achieving the objectives;
- . the participants' involvement was sustained throughout the workshop;
- . the visual aids reinforced the lesson and were utilized properly;

- . a good, clear and specific summary was presented at the end of each phase; and
- . the facilities (physical conditions, preparation of the room(s), logistics, etc.) were conducive to a learning atmosphere.

There was only one (5%) element rated by the independent observer as "good." That element was:

- . facilitator's timing was adequate from the beginning to ending, minimizing delays.

Content analysis was conducted on the clinical notes supplied by the independent observer. The comments were clustered around four areas: instruction, course materials, participation, and logistics.

Post-workshop Assignment

After the main field-test, participants completed this assignment. The highest possible number of points was 100. Table 27 presents the score for each participant. The results show that 4 (16%) scored 100 points, 5 (21%) scored 95 points, 5 (21%) scored 80 points, 5 (21%) scored 75 points, and 5 (21%) scored 70 points. The minimum score was 70 and the maximum score was 100.

Group Means, Standard Deviations, Sample Variances and Coefficient of Variations of Post-workshop Assignment

As shown in Table 28, the mean score for the post-workshop assignment was 83.33. The standard deviation was 17.19.

Table 27

Scores on Post-Workshop Assignment by Participant

<u>Parti-</u> <u>cipant</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Points</u>	<u>Parti-</u> <u>cipant</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Points</u>
1	100	13	80
2	70	14	75
3	70	15	95
4	75	16	95
5	70	17	75
6	80	18	95
7	70	19	70
8	75	20	95
9	80	21	100
10	95	22	80
11	75	23	100
12	100	24	80

Table 28

Means, Sample Standard Deviations, Sample Variances,
and Coefficient of Variations of Post-Workshop
Assignment

Size	Mean	Sample Std Dev	Sample Variance	Coef. of Variation
24	83.33	17.19	11.58	.13894

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The study designed and validated a leadership training program prototype for African American women. The educational research and development methodology was used because the researcher designed, implemented and evaluated a prototype workshop. In addition, this methodology was conducive to qualitative and quantitative evaluations.

The study was based on a modified plan for educational research and development as outlined by Borg and Gall (1989), and was grouped into three major phases incorporating six project steps. The first phase included gathering research and information, and planning. The second phase consisted of the preliminary field-test wherein the prototype workshop was delivered and evaluated. The final phase encompassed the revisions of the prototype workshop, delivery and evaluation of that workshop.

The following project elements were examined during the design, implementation and evaluation of the prototype workshop:

- a. to ascertain the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership and their

understanding of how one obtains leadership status;

- b. to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of each identified managerial behavior skill and its importance, in terms of developing African American women for leadership positions by surveying the cluster sampling group;
- c. to determine how modeling and self-efficacy constructs influence leadership development and training of African American women using the direct instruction model;
- d. to design a prototype workshop curriculum, facilitator's manual and participant's workbook for training African American women; and
- e. to implement the preliminary and main field-testing of the prototype workshop and evaluate both, making appropriate revisions.

Since studies which specifically addressed use of the direct instruction model in leadership training programs, geared for the development of African American women were absent from the literature, an experimental design was used to test this model. The experimental design used in this study was the one

group, pretest-posttest. It was hypothesized that the distribution of scores in the pretest and posttest measuring "planning and organizing" skill development, using the direct instruction model would differ in their mean at the $p < .05$ level. The null hypothesis stated that the distribution of scores in the pretest and posttest are identical.

Data were collected from a number of sources and subjected to both descriptive and quantitative research analyses. The analysis of data first summarized the outcome of data collected from the needs assessment under phase one of the study. Then data were gathered during the final phase of the study, main field-test. The findings were reported in narrative form and tables.

This chapter summarizes first the findings based on the data analyses. Next, conclusions drawn from these findings are discussed. Finally, recommendations and implementations for future research are organized around the project elements of the study.

Summary

The summary below discusses the findings from data collected during the study. Findings from the needs assessment process are first summarized. Then findings from the main-field test are summarized.

Needs Assessment

Completion of the needs assessment was the initial step in the educational research and development model employed in this study. A needs assessment survey-questionnaire was utilized to: determine the prototype workshop topic; and ascertain the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of fourteen managerial behavior skills, integrated from studies conducted by Yukl (1987, 1989) and Harvard's dissertation study in 1988. The prototype workshop was based largely upon the activities completed during the needs assessment step. Additional information was collected through a focus-group interview session conducted with project role models, who were selected from among the needs assessment respondents.

Needs Assessment Survey-Questionnaire

The cluster sampling group which was comprised of fifty-four African American women at the senior executive service level in the executive branch of the

federal government completed the needs assessment survey-questionnaire. Demographic data collected about these respondents show the following:

- . the majority of the respondents were located in the headquarters of their respective agency while the others were located in their field agency.
- . More than half of these women supervised less than 100 employees. More than 100 employees were supervised by fewer respondents.
- . The majority held federal career status positions while the others held political appointments.
- . More than half were appointed or selected to the federal SES level during the term of 1990-94. Only two were appointed or selected during term 1978-79. One respondent did not provide the date of her appointment or selection.
- . Most of the respondents indicated that they had entered the federal service at the GS-13 grade level or higher. This was closely followed by respondents who entered at either the GS-7-12 and GS-1-6 grade levels.

Two respondents did not provide their grade level upon entering federal service.

- The master's degree was the highest level of education attained by the majority of respondents followed by the bachelor's and J.D. degree. Only two have high school diplomas.
- The majority of respondents were between the ages of 46 and 55 years of age. Three of them were between the ages of 25 and 35 years of age.
- The majority of the respondents were married while the others were divorced or single. No respondents reported they were separated.
- The majority of these women have children.

The respondents were asked to rank the 14 managerial behavior skills in terms of its importance for developing African American women for leadership positions. The respondents rated "planning and organizing" as the most important skill while "dealing with sexism" was rated the least important. Based upon this data, "planning and organizing" emerged as the prototype workshop topic.

Because the literature on modeling and self-efficacy, and its influence on leadership development, show that performers choose to compare themselves with proficient models possessing the competencies to which they aspire. The observers identify the behavior exhibited as having intrinsic value and extrinsic value (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, the needs assessment survey-questionnaire data were subjected to an additional examination by the cluster sampling group members. These respondents rated and assessed the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of the 14 managerial behavior skills, in terms of their importance for developing African American women for leadership based on the skill's definition.

The results are as follows:

- . The respondents rated skill, "dealing with racism" as having the highest level of intrinsic value and the skill, "dealing with sexism" was rated as having the lowest level of intrinsic value.
- . As it relates to the level of extrinsic value of each managerial behavior skill, "problem-solving" held the highest level of extrinsic value and "supporting" held the lowest level of extrinsic value.

Project Role Models

Selected from among the cluster sampling group members were three women, who participated in a video-taped focus-group interview session which was incorporated into the prototype workshop curriculum. Eighteen questions were asked and are reprinted on page 123. Content analysis of the comments (see Appendix D) provided during this session focused on these areas: (a) definition of leadership; (b) planning and organizing; (c) clarification of roles and responsibilities; (d) problem-solving; (e) role modeling; (f) self-efficacy; and (g) leadership style and development.

Main Field-Test

The main-field test of the prototype workshop was conducted under phase three of the educational research and development process, and held at an executive branch agency in the Washington metropolitan area. The data gathered under this phase were subjected to a number of statistical and content analyses. Findings about the main field-test participants are discussed below, including results of the pretest-posttest; post-workshop evaluation; post-workshop interview-questionnaire; independent

observer's evaluation-questionnaire and clinical notes; and post-workshop assignment.

Main Field-test Participants

The cluster sampling group members did not participate in the field-testings of the prototype workshop. However, an intact group of twenty-four (24) African American women employed in an executive branch agency of the federal government participated in the main field-test. Demographic data collected about these participants shows the following:

- . Most were employed at the GS-12 grade level. The highest grade level represented was GS-13. The next highest grade level represented was GS-11 followed by GS-9. The lowest grade level represented was GS-7.
- . The majority of participants held supervisory or managerial positions.
- . All participants reported prior leadership training while the majority of them reported having prior planning and organizing training.

Pretest-Posttest

Most of the participants scored from 50 to 80 points on the pretest and most of them scored between 80 to 95 points on the posttest. The mean score on

the pretest was 56.04 and the mean score on the posttest was 77.50. The majority of participants had higher scores on the posttest. In contrast, the scores of two participants regressed on the posttest. It was noted that these participants were among the three who scored the highest on the pretest.

A Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test was conducted measuring "planning and organizing" skill development, using the direct instruction model would differ in their mean at the $p < .05$ level. This nonparametric test compares two independent means by examining the direction and the magnitude of differences between them (Shavelson, 1988). Based on the analysis and findings resulting from this test, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that the distribution of scores on the pretest and posttest differed in their means at $p < .05$, suggesting usefulness of the direct instruction model.

Post-workshop Evaluation Form

The majority of responses indicated that the prototype workshop met or exceeded participants' expectations. Overall, the ratings suggest that the training method stimulated participation while providing useful and appropriate information for organizational and personal planning and organizing.

However, mixed ratings were noted in three major areas: (a) training method, (b) appropriateness for leadership development and training, and (c) the video presentation. The dominant impression gained is that the prototype workshop rated "excellent" overall.

In addition, participants were asked to provide written comments about the prototype workshop. Most indicated that the prototype workshop was effective in meeting the learning goals and objectives. Some written comments were recurrent and similar in content. Based on content analysis of these comments, three major themes surfaced: (a) class participation, (b) instructor, and (c) materials. A separate discussion on each is provided below.

Class participation: The majority of the comments provided were positive; most indicated the interaction with group members as an important facet of the workshop.

Instructor: The majority rated the instructor as being well prepared and interesting.

Materials: Most commented that the video representation using the project role models depicted real-life experience as it related to planning and organizing. However, some participants commented that the advice given by the project role models in other

areas, such as decision-making and participative management seemed predictable and contrived.

Post-workshop Interview-Questionnaire

Unanimous ratings were shown in these elements: dealing with the objectives, time, and content of the workshop. Split or mixed ratings were centered around adding or deleting materials, length of the workshop and participation. Their comments varied little from those provided earlier on the post-workshop evaluation form, despite probing by the researcher. The results suggest that this form of evaluation yielded limited information about the outcomes of the prototype workshop.

Independent Observer's Evaluation-Questionnaire

This evaluation-questionnaire was completed by the independent observer who was not a participant in the field-testings. The majority of the elements were rated "excellent" by the independent observer. Only one element was rated by her as "good;" the remaining elements were rated as "above average."

Based on content analysis of the independent observer's clinical notes, four areas of evaluation emerged. A separate discussion on each follows.

Instruction: According to the independent observer, the direct instruction model was a useful teaching

tool which guided the learning effort, providing a good mix of "hands-on" and lecture. The video recaps used in the main field-test led to sustained, stimulating discussions.

Course materials: She noted that distributing hand-outs when referenced averted problems participants might have experienced during the lecture phase.

Participation: The independent observer found that time adjustments were appropriately made. Participants seemed to easily recall answers missed on the pretest during class discussion.

Logistics: According to the independent observer, use of a wide screen to show the video as opposed to a television monitor resulted in blurred images and distorted audio, lessening visual quality. However, the use of this screen greatly enhanced the presentation of transparencies. Overall, the facility was convenient, accessible and comfortable.

Post-workshop Assignment

The post-workshop assignment (see Appendix I) was a planning and time management exercise constructed by Yukl (1989) reprinted from his textbook, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases and Exercises (1990). The scores were between 70 and 100. Four participants received the highest score. The next

highest score was 95 followed by scores of 80 and 75. The lowest score 70 was earned by five participants. The mean score was 83.33. The higher scores may be attributable to the participants' prior leadership and/or planning and organizing training.

Conclusions

The conclusions below were drawn from the findings in this educational research and development study as it relates to the design, implementation and evaluation of a leadership training prototype workshop in the following areas: (a) the cluster sampling group's definition of leadership, (b) role modeling constructs, (c) self-efficacy constructs, (d) planning and organizing skill development, and (e) use of the direct instruction model to design the prototype workshop.

The Cluster Sampling Group's Definition of Leadership

The model of African American women leadership defined by the cluster sampling group members were consistent with the literature. Their model includes attributes, such as, coping with change; taking risks; empowering herself and others; leading by example; visioning; and supporting and rewarding subordinates. One project role model stated that she had in place a process whereby everybody "buys-into the vision," and "an environment where there is definitely participation and everybody shares in the reward."

These attributes were consistently cited in the literature review addressing principles of women leadership and those describing the transformational leader. As noted by Helgesen (1990), the model of feminine leadership was distinctive in areas which contradict conventional differences, and are compelling expressions of voice. Additionally, Tichy and Devanna (1986) defined an effective leader as one who embraces the attributes of the transformational leader. Bass (1978) concurred that transformational leadership stimulates change and is viewed as an appropriate approach to meeting the needs and demands of the organization.

Role Modeling Constructs

Another area of consistency was the cluster sampling group's perception that having fewer African American women role models in the workplace affects their leadership development. These leaders commented that African American women role models were abundant within their families and communities; but, absent in the workplace early in their careers. However, all of the project role models stated that they were perceived by other African American women in their agency as a role model and had established

mentoring/coaching relationships with some of them. Stressing the need for other African American women leaders to establish and foster such mentoring relationships, one panelist quipped that "my name and number must be on the bathroom wall at my agency, because I get far more requests to mentor than I can handle."

These findings were congruent with those reported in studies in the literature on modeling and same gender modeling. O'Neil (1989) found that the concept of role model by African American women leaders was more evenly seen as a support agent rather than role model. African American women leaders concentrated in academic settings, as shown in the Harvard study of 1988, opined that lack of a mentor/role model, whether consciously or unconsciously, thwarted their career advancement. Further, findings of this study proved consistent with the literature on same gender modeling. In studies on children and same-sex modeling, Huston (1986) and Bandura (1986) found that children are able to learn from models of both sex, but are more likely to imitate the behavior of same-sex models.

Self-Efficacy Constructs

It was believed by participants in the Harvard's (1988) dissertation study, that "dealing with sexism" was a barrier impeding the advancement of African American women to leadership positions and affected their leadership development. But, unlike Harvard's (1988) findings, the current study found that "dealing with sexism" held the lowest level of intrinsic value, and was rated the least important managerial behavior skill. One panelist explained that "it has not affected the development so much as it has the day-to-day management...being African American and female may have held us back, but our own [self-efficacy] and ability made all the difference." Another panelist averred that "there are always going to be situations where someone is skeptical or doubtful about your abilities, at least initially." Finally, one panelist surmised that "people expect something different from you as an African American woman, so I realize the test is going to be harder. But I often wonder what it would be like to wake up and not be reminded of that fact...its makes me stronger, work harder. I am realistic about what's there, so I'm prepared. Its made me a better person."

By contrast, Bandura (1986) asserted that people's sense of self-efficacy centers on exercising some control over events that affect their lives. Baron & Graziano (1991) found in contemporary self-efficacy studies that what happens to people are attributed to aspects of the person as opposed to the situation. Also, Bandura & Cervone (1983) noted that when beset with difficulties, people who have a strong sense of self-efficacy exert greater effort to master the challenge.

Additionally, the respondents rated "problem-solving" as having the highest level of extrinsic value and "supporting," the lowest. But, the project role models voiced strongly their use of supportive leadership and participative management in two major areas: decision-making, and "buy-in" to goals and visions.

Studies by Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger (1990) confirmed that supportive leadership includes a variety of behaviors which build and maintain effective interpersonal relationships. A related area of consistency in the literature are studies on the referent powers of leadership. According to Yukl (1994), the referent power of a leader is increased by acting friendly and considerate, showing concern for

the needs and feelings of others, demonstrating trust and respect, and treating people fairly. Further, studies reviewed by Yukl (1994) explained that people who have considerable influence in making a decision tend to identify with it and perceive it to be their decision, which increases their motivation to implement it successfully (e.g., Anthony, 1978; Maier, 1963; Mitchell, 1973; Strauss, 1963).

Planning and Organizing Skill Development

"Planning and organizing" was determined the most important skill for leadership development by the cluster sampling group. Those interviewed believed planning and organizing were critical skills. One panelist explained that she conceptualizes what her organization needs to accomplish and then makes "certain that the things I am doing daily are leading towards that ultimate goal...you must be able to organize the pieces necessary for that to happen."

Perceptions about the importance of planning and organizing have long-standing recognition in the management literature (e.g., Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Fayol, 1949; Urwick, 1952). Descriptive studies support that the planning process is often informal

and adaptive. In particular, Quinn's (1980) study of top executives found that most important strategic decisions were made outside the formal planning process, and strategies were formulated in an incremental, flexible, and intuitive manner.

Findings here support those shown in two related areas of the literature: managerial effectiveness and time management. Planning was related to managerial effectiveness in some questionnaire studies with an independent criterion on managerial effectiveness (Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Morse & Wagner, 1978; Shipper & Wilson, 1992). In time management studies, a related area of literature, there has been considerable agreement about the importance of planning daily and weekly activities in advance (Mackenzie, 1972; Webber, 1980; Yukl, 1994, 1989, 1980).

Use of the Direct Instruction Model to Design the Prototype Workshop

The prototype workshop on "planning and organizing" was designed based on the direct instruction model. The results of the pretest-posttest were consistent with Joyce, Weil & Showers' (1992) findings that the direct instruction model

approach promotes mastery of skill and facilitates retention. It was hypothesized that distribution of scores on the pretest-posttest measuring "planning and organizing" skill development would differ. The scores on the posttest were higher than the scores on the pretest. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs test results showed that pretest-test scores differed at the $p < .05$ level. The hypothesis was therefore retained, suggesting usefulness of this model for developing the prototype workshop. Comments from the independent observer's clinical notes indicated that "participants seemed to easily recall answers missed on the pretest during class discussion." Additionally, the prototype workshop as rated by the participants shows that it met or exceeded its goals, and that having immediate feedback and group activities were important indicators which facilitated their learning.

These findings corroborated Yukl's (1989) findings that the most effective training programs on leadership development provide opportunities to practice skills and obtain feedback. The participants also commented that the project role models shown on the video related real-life experiences on planning and organizing. Abella (1986) concurred that behavior modeling can provide participants with a step-by-step

model for a given interaction. Participants are provided feedback after practicing those steps. This feedback informs them of where they have used the steps effectively and what needs to be improved. The findings of this study remained consistent with Joyce, et al., (1992) that use of visual representation (modeling) along with constant reinforcement in the direct instruction model enhances self-efficacy.

Recommendations

The results from the study hold some implications for future research. The following recommendations are posited in regard to the development and training of African American women for leadership positions.

1. A replication of the present study to develop leadership training programs using the direct instruction model for African American women who aspire to leadership positions in the private sector and academia.
2. An expansion of the present study to include the design, implementation and evaluation of the remaining thirteen managerial behavior skills.
3. A follow-up study to determine whether the participants' planning and organizing skill development has facilitated growth in their job performance and personal lives.
4. An expansion of the present study which examines and compares performance on the post-workshop assignment with gain scores on the pretest-posttest.

5. A replication of the present study using a true experimental design which controls for nearly all sources of internal and external validity.
6. Designing an on-going support system for African American women leaders and studying its effect.
7. Designing a study to determine whether there is concurrence between the skills Yukl identified for leadership development and the skills African American women leaders perceive to be important.
8. A study which examines how the skills reported by African American women leaders as important for leadership development are used to acquiesce to or oppose an organization's leadership style.
9. A replication of the present study to develop leadership training programs using the direct instruction model for other non-African American women who aspire to leadership in the public, private and educational settings.

10. A study to determine what effect dealing with racism and sexism has on the development of other minority women for leadership positions.
11. A comparison study to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of the fourteen managerial behavior skills other minority women believe affect their leadership development.
12. A comparison study to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value of the fourteen managerial behavior skills African American men, in contrast to women, believe affect their leadership development.
13. A comparison study to determine how modeling and self-efficacy constructs influence leadership development and training of other minority women.
14. A comparison study to determine how modeling and self-efficacy constructs influence leadership development and training of African American men, in contrast to women.

Appendix A

Definition of Managerial Behavior Categories in the Integrating Taxonomy

Building and Maintaining Relationships

Networking: Socializing informally, developing contacts with people who are a source of information and support and maintaining relationships through periodic interaction, including visits, telephone calls, and correspondence, and attendance at meetings and social events.

Supporting: Acting friendly and considerate, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset, listening to complaints and problems, looking out for someone's interests, providing helpful career advice, doing things to aid someone's career advancement.

Managing conflict and team building: Encouraging and facilitating constructive resolution of conflict, fostering teamwork and cooperation, and building identification with the organizational unit or team.

Influencing People

Motivating: Using influence techniques that appeal to emotions, values, or logic to generate enthusiasm for the work and commitment to task objectives, or to induce someone to carry out a request for support, cooperation, assistance, resources, or authorization; also setting an example of proper behavior by one's own actions.

Recognizing and rewarding: Providing praise, recognition, and tangible rewards for effective performance, significant accomplishments, and special contributions;; expressing respect and appreciation for someone's accomplishments.

Making Decisions

Planning and organizing: Determining long-range objectives and strategies for adapting to environmental change, identifying necessary action steps to carry out a project or activity, allocating resources among activities according to priorities, and determining how to improve efficiency, productivity, and coordination with other parts of the organization.

Problem solving: Identifying work-related problems, analyzing problems in a systematic but timely manner to determine causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions and deal with crises.

Collecting and Disseminating Information

Consulting and delegating: Checking with people before making changes that affect them, encouraging suggestions for improvement, inviting participation in decision making, incorporating the ideas and suggestions of others in decisions, and allowing others to have substantial discretion in carrying out work activities and handling problems.

Monitoring operations and environment: Gathering information about the progress and quality of work activities, the success or failure of activities or projects, and the performance of individual contributors, also, determining the needs of clients or users, and scanning the environment to detect threats and opportunities.

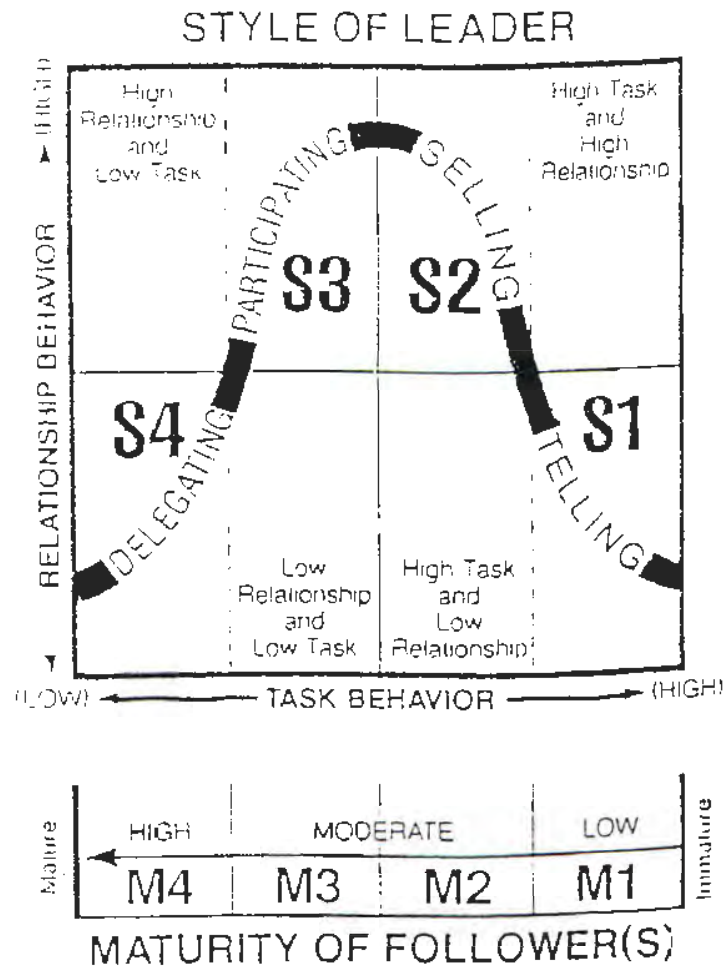
Informing: Disseminating relevant information about decisions, plans, and activities to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, answering requests for technical information, and telling people about the organizational unit to promote its reputation.

Clarifying roles and objectives: Assigning tasks, providing directions in how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations.

Source: Yukl, Leadership in organizations, (2nd ed.), pp. 129-130, 1989

Appendix B

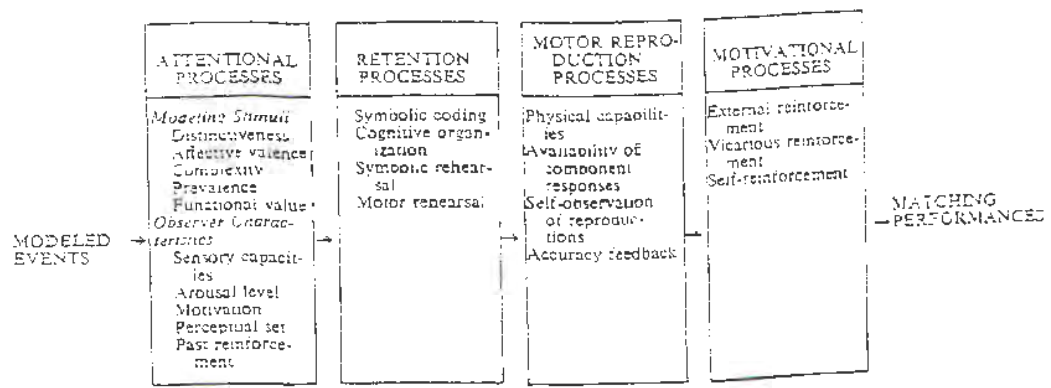
Hersey & Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model



Source: Johnson & Johnson, *Joining together: Group theory and group skills*, (4th ed.), p. 172, 1991

Appendix C

Bandura's Model Subprocesses: Learning View of Observational Learning



Subprocesses in the social learning view of observational learning.

Source: Bandura, Psychological Modeling, p. 24, 1971

Appendix D

Participant's Workbook Using the Direct Instruction Model



"How To Plan and Organize" Workshop

Martha W. Williams
Facilitator

DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP
"How To Effectively Plan and Organize"
Workshop

Agenda

ORIENTATION AND PRESENTATION

9:00 a.m. - 10:20 a.m.

Agency	introduction of facilitator, independent observer and participants.
Facilitator	welcome - "Motivation Exercise."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about exercise.
Facilitator	reviews agenda and discusses the procedures of the workshop.
Facilitator	shows video segment on "Planning and Organizing."
Facilitator	explains (lectures) new concept - "Planning and Organizing."
Facilitator	conducts exercise - "Hidden Square."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.

Morning Break - 10:20 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.

STRUCTURED PRACTICE (WHOLE GROUP) AND GROUP PRACTICE

10:30 a.m. - 12:00 p.m.

Facilitator	conducts exercise - "The IX Exercise."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.
Facilitator	leads group through practice examples of both interpersonal and conceptual skills essential for "planning and organizing" - using the strategic wheel for the "Goal Setting/Action Planning Exercise."
Participants	responds to questions.
Facilitator	provides corrective feedback for errors and reinforces correct practice of these skills.
Facilitator	provides video commentary.
Facilitator	provides a group case study - "Planning Exercise."
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.

Lunch - 12:00 p.m. - 1:00 p.m.

GROUP PRACTICE AND INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1:00 p.m. - 2:50 p.m.

Facilitator	shows video commentary.
Participants	responds to questions.
Facilitator	leads discussion on ways to effectively plan for organizational (extrinsic) and personal goals (intrinsic).
Facilitator	presents the practice exercise - "A Case Study."
Facilitator	circulates, monitoring participant practice.
Participants	discuss reactions and learnings about the exercise.
Facilitator	provides feedback and reinforcement.

Afternoon Break - 2:50 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.

WRAP UP

3:00 p.m. - 4:30 p.m.

Facilitator	shows the final segment of video presentation - operational planning.
Facilitator	leads discussion about the day's activities and learnings.
Participants	give feedback on activities/learnings and other comments about the workshop.
Facilitator	makes the workshop assignment - "A Planning and Organizing Time Management Exercise;" explains purpose (development of operational planning skills).
Participants	completes the post workshop evaluation and posttest.
Facilitator	presentation to workshop personnel and confirms selected personal interviews.

"Planning is everything.
The Plan is nothing."

-- General Dwight D. Eisenhower

"One does not plan and then try to
make the circumstances fit those
plans. One tries to make the plans fit
the circumstances."

-- General George Patton

Purpose

The purpose of planning and organizing is to ensure efficient organization of work unit, coordination of activities, effective utilization of resources, and adaptation to a changing environment.

Types of Planning

- * Strategic
- * Operational
- * Action
- * Contingency

Components or Aspects of Planning

- * Organizing
- * Potential Problem Analysis
- * Resource Allocation
- * Time management

Action Planning

When planning how to accomplish an objective or attain a goal, it is necessary first to identify potential strategies and select one that appears feasible and cost effective. This process is usually referred to as strategic planning or strategy formation. Action planning is a process of determining how to implement a strategy or carry out a project in an effective manner.

As defined here, systematic action planning includes the following four related phases:

1. Programming: Identify the action steps necessary to carry out the general strategy or project, and determine the optimal sequence for these action steps.
2. Scheduling: Estimate the amount of time needed to carry out each action step, and determine the optimal starting times and deadlines for each step.
3. Budgeting: Estimate the cost of each action step, including the cost of necessary resources and support services.
4. Controlling: Fix accountability for each action step and develop procedures for monitoring progress and detecting problems.

There are many reasons why action planning is important for managers. The process of systematic action planning helps to identify better ways to accomplish an objective. Action plans result in better estimates of time needed to carry out a strategy, thereby resulting in more realistic deadlines for carrying out projects and accomplishing objectives. Action plans help to avert delays caused by failure to carry out a critical action step, or failure to start the action step early enough. Action plans aid in estimating the likely cost of a proposed strategy, thereby enabling a manager to evaluate it by comparing costs with benefits. Action plans help to identify critical action steps where potential problems are likely to be most serious when implementing a strategy. Action plans make it easier to monitor progress when implementing a strategy or carrying out a project. Schedules, checkpoints, budget estimates, and so forth, facilitate early detection of delays, problems, or cost overruns. Action plans facilitate the delegation of responsibility to subordinates. Finally, action planning facilitates coordination among managers at different levels, and laterally with peers.

Action Planning...

- * Helps to identify ways to accomplish objectives
- * Results in accurate estimates of time
- * Helps to avoid delays or failures
- * Aids in estimating costs and benefits
- * Identifies potential problems
- * Facilitates delegation of subordinate responsibilities
- * Facilitates coordination of activities

7 Guidelines for Action Planning

- * Identify necessary action steps
- * Identify the optimal sequence of action steps
- * Estimate the time needed to carry out each action step
- * Determine starting times and deadlines for each action step
- * Estimate the cost of each action step
- * Determine accountability for each action step
- * Develop procedures for monitoring progress

5 Qualities for Evaluation Plan

- * Precise
- * Measurable
- * Feasible
- * Consistent
- * Suitable

Procedures For Action Planning

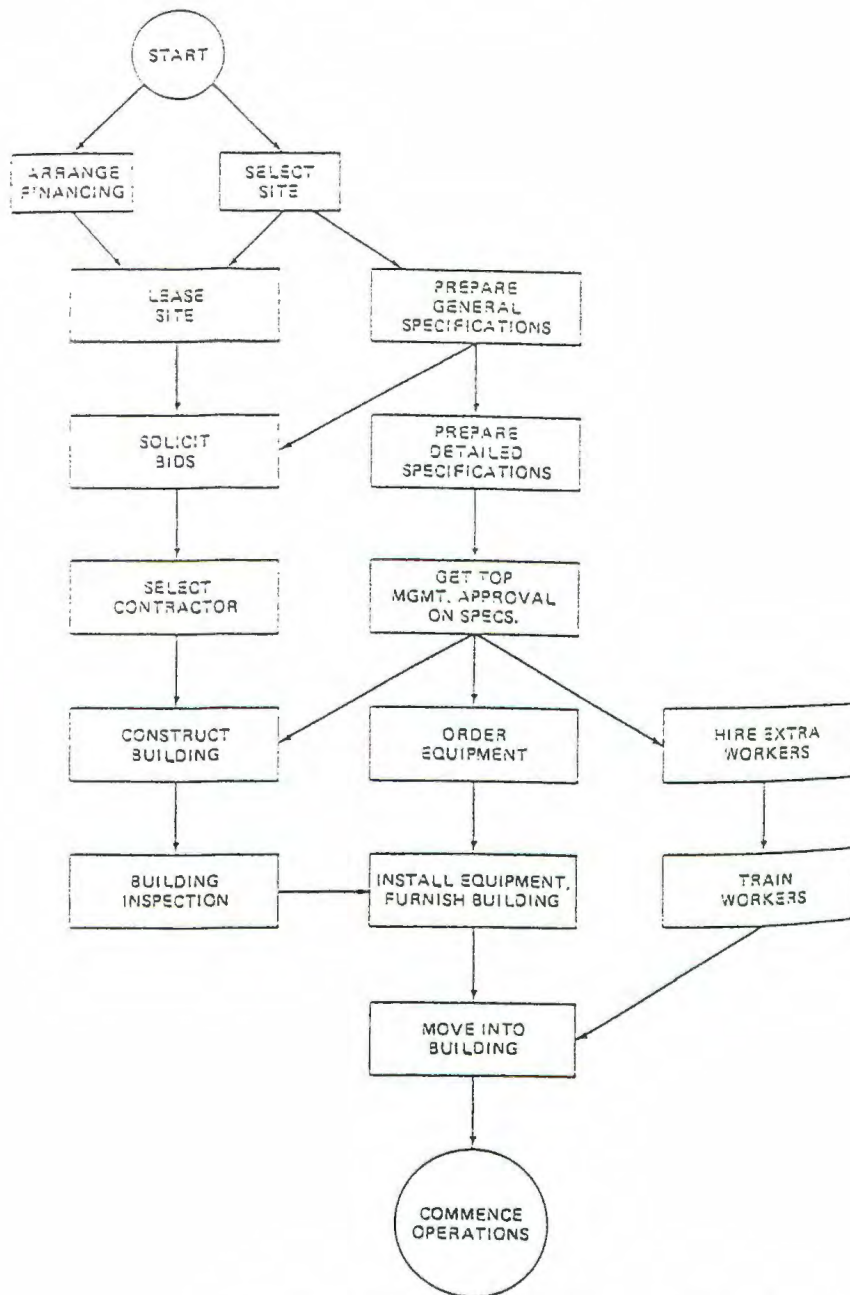
The process of identifying necessary action steps to implement strategy or carry out a project can be described as a series of questions that must be answered. Such as, what activities must be carried out; what information must be obtained and from whom; what materials and supplies must be obtained and from whom; and what equipment and facilities must be arranged.

After the necessary action steps are identified and described in a clear, concise way, the next step is to determine the optimal sequencing for them. This step requires a deeper analysis of the connections and causal relationships among the action steps. Some questions you may need to answer include, but are not limited to: what steps must be completed before another step can start; what steps can be carried out independently; and what steps are optional and can be skipped if there are delays. If the optimal sequence of action steps is linear, a simple list of the necessary action steps in proper order is sufficient to describe it. However, if the sequence is complex and involves parallel paths, a type of flow chart call an "activity network" (see below) is useful.

Scheduling is the determination of when each action step should start and end. The first step in scheduling action steps is to estimate how much time is required to carry out each action step. If it is difficult to estimate time requirements for an action step, the activity should be broken up into component steps for which estimates are likely to be easier. The estimated time for each action step should be listed in terms of days or fractions of days next to that action step on the activity list or activity network. Time estimates in action plans are very subjective and somewhat arbitrary. It is common to begin with the average time needed in the past for a particular type of activity, then make an adjustment for unique conditions. If problems and delays are very likely for an action step, additional slack should be built into the time estimate.

The next step is to determine when each action step should begin and end. A series of key questions can be asked to identify possible constraints on the scheduling of activities due to the availability of essential personnel, equipment, facilities, and supplies. These constraints affect the starting time for activities that involve them. It is common for projects to be delayed because a manager assumed an activity could occur at a time when the necessary equipment, support person, or facility was not available.

An Activity Network



Sample Activity Network for Opening a New Plant

Source:

G.A. Yukl, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases, and Exercises, 1990

An activity list for a sequence of linear action steps can be converted into a "timeline" or "event calendar" by adding start and end times for each action step shown below.

<i>Project: Custom design product Y for client.</i>			
<i>Deadline: October 18, 1988</i>			
<i>Action Step</i>	<i>Time Required</i>	<i>Start Date</i>	<i>Deadline</i>
1. Meet with client to determine specifications.	2 days	7-5	7-6
2. Develop preliminary plans.	5 days	7-7	7-13
3. Get approval of plans.	7 days	7-14	7-22
4. Develop prototype.	20 days	7-21	8-20
5. Test prototype.	5 days	8-22	8-26
6. Review tests with client.	1 day	8-29	8-29
7. Finalize design.	3 days	9-30	9-1
8. Start production.	30 days	9-5	10-14
9. Deliver product to client.	2 days	10-17	10-18

Source: G.A. Yukl, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases, and Exercises, 1990

When there are not many action steps in the plan and most of the sequence is linear, an alternative approach is to use a regular calendar to list start and end times for each action step. For a complex sequence of action steps described by an activity network, it is better to develop a milestone chart which is reprinted in this workbook.

The recommended procedure for determining start and end dates is the following: begin with the last item in the sequence and use the estimated time necessary to perform that action step to determine the start date for it. Then use the start date to determine the deadline for the next-to-last activity. Repeat the process, working backward through the sequence of action steps until the starting time is determined for the first action step in the sequence. During the process, make any adjustments necessary for constraints, such as times when key personnel, equipment, or facilities are unavailable. This scheduling process is not as difficult as it may appear, and software is now available for personal computers to assist the planner in developing milestone charts.

The next step is to determine resource requirements for each action step in the plan. Resources include personnel, materials, supplies, support services, and expenses for purchase or use of equipment and facilities. There are many different approaches to budgeting for an action plan, and a number of subjective and arbitrary judgments are necessary. One of the decisions involves the treatment of indirect and overhead costs. Resource estimates may or may not include the cost of your own time and that of other employees, depending on the budgeting approach used by the organization. Similarly, resource estimates may or may not include overhead costs for use of the organization's existing equipment and facilities. Personnel costs may be specified only in hours, or hours may be used to compute the dollar cost for work on the project by the organization's employees. Regardless of which approach is used, some type of action plan work sheet like the ones shown in your workbook are usually helpful.

Milestone Chart

Action Step	Week:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37		
ARRANGE FINANCING																																								
SELECT SITE																																								
LEASE SITE																																								
PREPARE GENERAL SPECS.																																								
PREPARE DETAILED SPECS.																																								
SOLICIT BIDS																																								
SELECT CONTRACTOR																																								
GET TOP MGMT. APPROVAL OF SPECS.																																								
ORDER EQUIPMENT																																								
CONSTRUCT BUILDING																																								
INSPECT BUILDING																																								
INSTALL EQUIPMENT																																								
HIRE WORKERS																																								
TRAIN WORKERS																																								
MOVE INTO BUILDING																																								
COMMENCE OPERATIONS																																								

Source:

G.A. Yukl, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases, and Exercises, 1990

The budgeting phase of action planning represents an important link with the regular budgeting process of the organization. It is important to consider the cost of each action step before making a final commitment to the action plan and deadline. After the total cost of the planned project or strategy has been estimated, a manager may discover that it exceeds the amount of resources previously allocated. Likewise, it may become evident that the costs of a project or strategy are not justified by the expected benefits. In either event, it will be necessary to consider ways to reduce costs. One possibility for reducing costs is to settle for a less ambitious deadline. Another way is to reduce the scope of the project or activity. If costs cannot be reduced significantly to justify the project or strategy, it will be necessary to reconsider alternative strategies, or to modify the objective.

Sometimes commitment is in doubt for the person who would normally carry out the action step. In this event, there are a number of options, some of which can be used simultaneously, such as: (1) trying to find someone more reliable and committed to carry out the action step; (2) building more slack into the schedule around action steps assigned to people who are unreliable; and (3) giving the person a deadline that is earlier than necessary.

Effective management of an action plan requires appropriate monitoring of action steps. Even when the people who will carry out action steps are reliable, it is desirable to monitor their progress. Monitoring is facilitated by identifying appropriate dates for checking on the initiation, progress, and completion of scheduled action steps. You should not wait until the deadline for an activity to check if it has been started and is on schedule. Appropriate monitoring techniques may include written reports, meetings to review progress, visits to sites where activities are supposed to take place, and inspection of work samples. Costs should be monitored also in order to direct potential cost overruns, errors in payments, and possible misuse of funds. Expenses should be compared to budgeted amounts at appropriate points in the project.

Careful monitoring is essential for detecting any problems or delays. When a problem is discovered, it is important to deal with it quickly. Sometimes it is necessary to modify the schedule for all or part of an action plan to reflect unavoidable delays. Changes in scheduling are easier to make if done early, since people are less likely to have other commitments and more flexibility is possible. If it becomes evident that the final deadline for the project is unlikely to be met, it is important to inform people who will be affected as soon as possible.

The amount of detail necessary in an action plan varies with the nature of the strategy or project. More elaborate plans are appropriate for a strategy or project that is complex, important, and costly. Some strategies or projects are so simple and routine that they can be managed effectively with only a short activity list with some crude time estimates. It is important to identify the appropriate

level of action planning. Insufficient plans are likely to result in failed or late projects or in cost overruns. Overly complex plans are likely to waste the manager's time, create unrealistic expectations, reduce flexibility, and encourage over-supervision. Although good data on managerial planning is not available, it is likely that most managers do too little action planning rather than too much. Descriptive research shows that managers tend to avoid formal planning in favor of spending time on solving immediate problems. In their daily activities, managers are often guided by informal agendas that are similar to plans, but these agendas usually lack the detail necessary to provide many of the benefits of proactive action planning.

Action plans should be evaluated by criteria related to the components of the planning process. To evaluate how feasible, comprehensive, and realistic an action plan is, the following questions are helpful:

- (1) Are the action steps likely to lead to attainment of the plan's objectives?
- (2) Are all of the important action steps identified?
- (3) Has the necessary sequencing of the action steps been determined?
- (4) Is each action step described clearly without necessary details?
- (5) Is each action step distinct from the others?
- (6) Is each action step consistent with the law and with organizational policies and procedures?
- (7) Are the estimated times realistic?
- (8) Is the final deadline realistic?
- (9) Have the resource requirements been estimated realistically?
- (10) Do the benefits from the plan justify the costs?
- (11) Has accountability for each action step been assigned to an appropriate individual?
- (12) Has the cooperation of involved parties been assured?
- (13) Have appropriate checkpoints and monitoring procedures been identified?
- (14) Have likely problems and feasible remedies been identified?

Points To Remember

- * Amount of detail varies
- * Elaborate plans for complex, costly projects
- * Use crude time estimates for short-term projects
- * Insufficient plans result in failure
- * Complex plans result in:
 - Unrealistic expectations
 - Reduced flexibility
 - Oversupervision

Checklist for Planning Implementation

- * Divide the solution into sequential, easily manageable steps
- * Ensure that everyone knows what she must do
- * Develop a commitment strategy
- * Establish a control (monitoring) system
- * Ensure that data will be collected
- * Define contingency plans

On Long-range planning?

We're gonna stay on until the end of the world. And when that day comes we'll cover it, play "Nearer My God to Thee," and sign off.

-- Ted Turner, founder of CNN

We know that without leaders who "walk the talk," all our plans, promises and dreams for the future are just that -- talk!

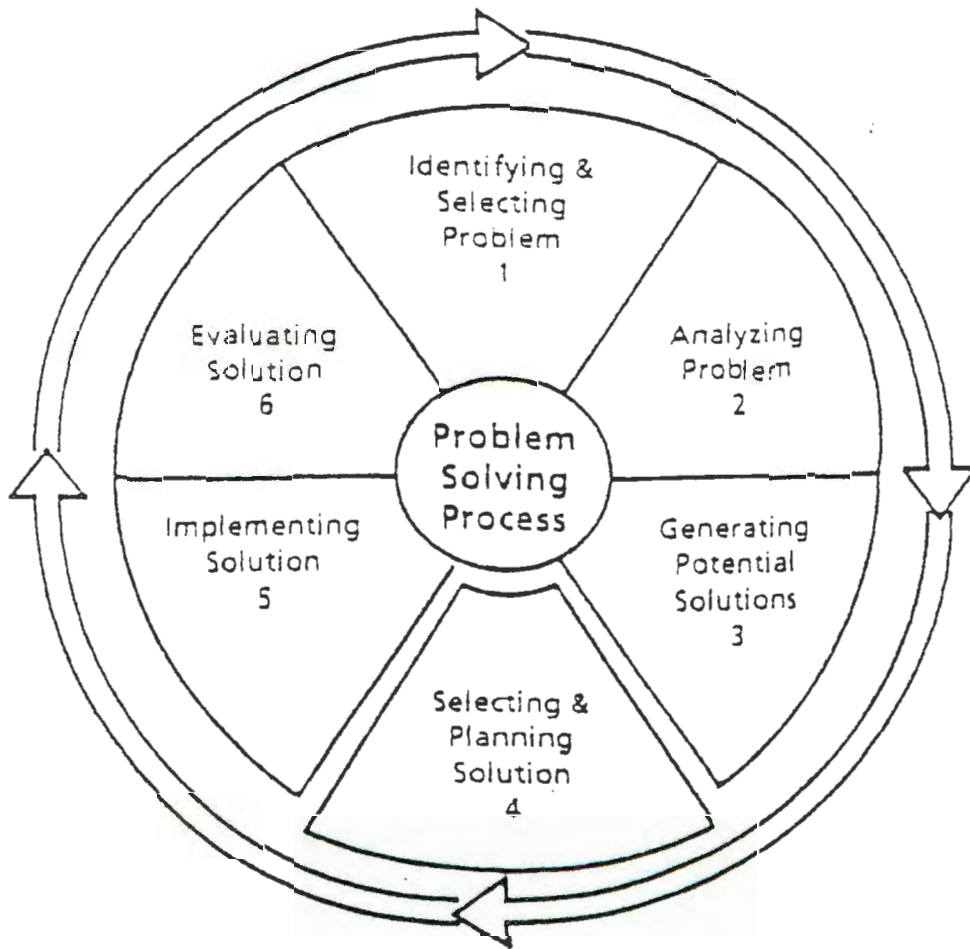
-- General Electric

Action Plan Work Sheet

[illegible]

Source: G.A. Yukl, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases, and Exercises, 1990

Gantt's Planning Wheel



Goal Setting/Action Planning

Objective

To establish a positive climate and spirit of cooperation among persons who will be working together on future projects; to introduce teamwork into group activity.

Procedure

Divide the group into teams of 5 each. (Grouping may be done along departmental lines, or strictly on a random, convenience basis). Ask the group to spend the first 10 minutes developing a collective mental image (verbalized) of what their work situation would preferably be like a year from now (e.g., "What could it potentially become from a positive viewpoint?") Then ask each group to develop a skeletal action plan listing the items directly or indirectly under their control that must be accomplished in the next year to achieve the overall image. Now have each team present a brief report to the total group.

Materials Required

Newsprint/Flip chart

Approximate Time Required

40-60 minutes

Source

Reprinted from J.W. Newstrom and E.E. Scannell, Games Trainers Play: Experiential Learning Exercises, 1980, Library of Congress, 1987

Hidden Squares

Objective

To encourage participants to dig deeper into problems, and visualize them from a different perspective; to see not only the whole, but also various combinations of parts.

Procedure

Participants are provided with a visual drawing of a large square, divided as shown on the following page. They are then directed to quickly count the total number of squares seen, and report that number orally.

Key

The correct answer is 32, developed as follows: 1 whole square, 16 individual squares, 4 squares with 4 units in each, and 4 units inside 4 squares, 2 units with 8 squares in each.

Materials Required

Flip chart, transparency, or handout with the figure found on the following page.

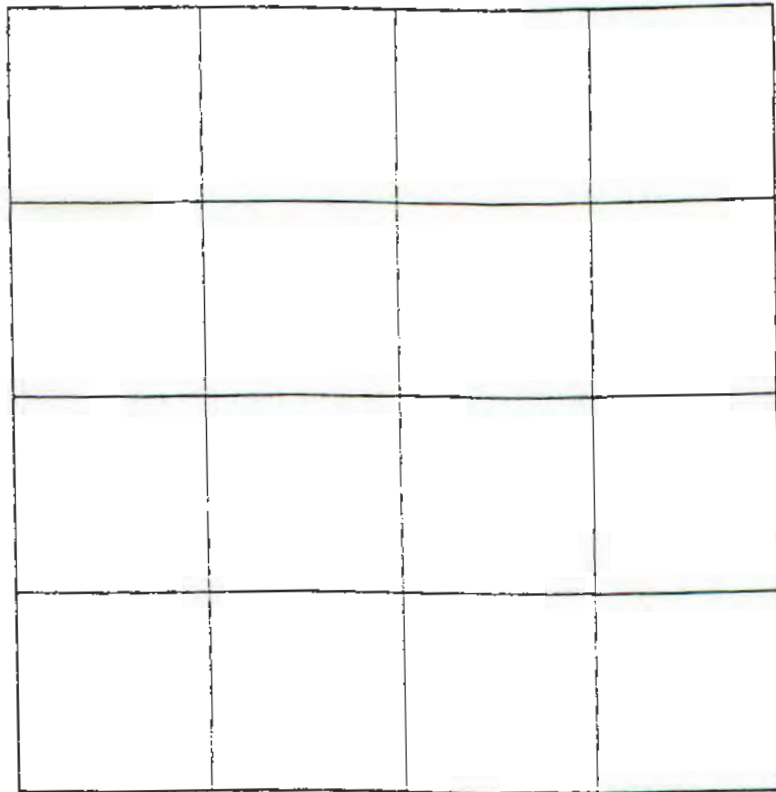
Approximate Time Required

5 minutes

Source

Reprinted from J.W. Newstrom and E.E. Scannell, Games Trainers Play: Experiential Learning Exercises, 1980, Library of Congress, 1987

Hidden Square



The "IX" Exercise

Objective

To illustrate that problem-solving may not be as difficult as it initially may seem.

Procedure

Draw the symbol "IX" on a board, flip chart or transparency (or you may provide the attached figure to each participant). Ask the participants to make a 6 (six) out of the symbol with the use of only one line.

Materials Required

Chalkboard, flip chart, transparency, or handout using the figure on the following page.

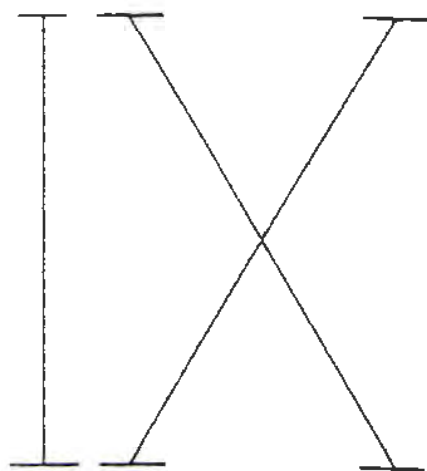
Approximate Time Required

5 minutes

Source

Reprinted from J.W. Newstrom and E.E. Scannell, Games Trainers Play: Experiential Learning Exercises, 1980, Library of Congress, 1987

The IX Exercise



Planning Exercise

Objective

The purpose of this exercise is to give participants an opportunity to carry out a relatively simple planning task using some of the methods learned during the workshop. The task demonstrates some of the types of judgments and analyses necessary to plan more complex projects and activities.

Procedure

Tell the participants "to assume that it is now March, and you have been asked by your boss to arrange a dinner dance for the approximately one hundred full-time employees of his department and their spouses. He has selected a site for the event, but there is still some flexibility on the date. If possible, your boss would like to have event some evening during the first two weeks in June, but this is a time when this site is popular for weddings and receptions.

A separate caterer must be employed, since the site does not provide food service, only bar service for drinks. Your boss would like to have formal, printed announcements (with RSVP's) sent out three weeks before the event to get an accurate count of how many people will attend. Your boss wants a live band for entertainment. Assume that you have a limited budget and must check on prices for everything except the site."

Don't forget to divide the assignment into major subtasks. Identify component action steps for each, and list them in proper sequence. Estimate how long it will take in hours or days. Assume two weeks turnaround time for a print shop to print invitations. A flow chart may or may not be helpful. But, do complete an event calendar indicating the week in which each step should occur. Assume the dinner will occur in the twelfth week after planning begins.

Materials Required

Flip chart, transparency, or handouts using the planning outline on the following page.

Approximate Time Required

40-60 minutes

Source

Reprinted from G.A. Yukl, Skills for Managers and Leaders: Text, Cases, and Exercises, 1990

Activity List for Dinner Dance Plans

Site Arrangements

Dinner Arrangements

Guest List and Invitations

Entertainment

Event Calendar

Case: Sterling Products

Objective

The purpose of this exercise is to give participants an opportunity to understand why action planning is essential and an important leadership skill. The case study encourages the participant to practice planning, organizing and problem-solving skills.

Procedure

The participants will work independently on the case study. Study questions are provided for this exercise. Participants will discuss with a partner before the group discussion. The facilitator will circulate to monitor the progress and provide assistance.

The vice president for sales in Sterling Products, a large manufacturing company, set an objective to increase profits for the next year by 20%. The primary strategy for achieving this objective was to promote the company's premier brand, which yielded the highest profit margin. Marketing funds were shifted from the other products to the premier brand, and a major promotional campaign was initiated. The sales representatives were encouraged to set higher individual goals for sales of the premier product. A memo was sent to inform the vice president for production about the sales forecasts for next year and to request that he or she go ahead with tentative plans to purchase new machines to increase production capacity for the premier brand.

The production department was under increasing pressure from the CEO to reduce costs for the basic, economy brand. Competitors were making major inroads into the company's market share for this product by offering a similar product at a lower price. The vice president for production set an objective for the coming year to reduce production costs for the economy brand by 10%. Production procedures were streamlined, and the economy brand was given priority scheduling to reduce overtime costs. Old equipment used for making the economy brand was replaced with new, more efficient equipment financed by funds that initially had been allocated to buy machines to make the premier brand. The vice president for production believed the sales department had made highly unrealistic forecasts, and he didn't expect sales of the premier brand to increase very much. Even if sales of the premier brand did increase, he figured that production could be increased by working more overtime. Once the cost-cutting measures were implemented, the vice president for production sent a memo to the sales department telling them about the revised costs on the economy brand so that they would henceforth have more leeway to compete on price for sales for that brand.

When orders for the premier product suddenly increased, the production department could not meet the demand. As long delays developed in deliveries, sales were lost to competitors. Sales for the premier brand increased for the year, but they fell far short of the targeted levels. Furthermore, the cost per unit was higher than anticipated by the sales vice president, since the additional units involved considerable overtime. Thus, the profit objectives for the premier brand were not attained. Meanwhile, sales of the economy brand stayed about the same, since this product was de-emphasized by the sales force, even though it now could be priced more competitively. Although profits from both brands were up slightly, overall company profits would have been much higher if these self-inflicted problems had not occurred.

Source

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Post Workshop Assignment: In-Basket Exercise

Objective

To provide participants with practice in thinking about priorities and planning activities for the next day.

Procedure

Assume you are a regional sales manager in a large corporation. You have been away on a business trip since Monday, and you have returned a day early. It is now 4:30 p.m. on Thursday, and you are in your office to look at your mail and plan some activities for the next day. Since you had expected to be away until Friday night, no meetings or appointments are scheduled for you at your office tomorrow. You have only half an hour to make your plans, because you have to meet your spouse for dinner.

The company has three major product lines, and each product line has several different models. Your regional sales office is housed in a company facility that includes other regional departments (e.g., personnel, accounting, distribution, maintenance), a large production facility, and a warehouse for company products. Your boss is the sales vice president for the company, and his office is at corporate headquarters in another state. You have 20 sales representatives who report to you, and an office staff of five employees who process orders sent in by the sales representatives. In addition, you have an assistant sales manager and a secretary.

Read through the items in your in-basket, then use the form to indicate the things you would plan to do tomorrow (Friday). Remember, you have only 30 minutes to make your plans. Please keep an accurate count of your time and record it on the form.

Source

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Post Workshop Assignment: Plans For Tomorrow

Instructions: Please respond to the following questions which relate to the in-basket exercise by indicating the corresponding number of each item.

- A High Priority, both important and urgent, do tomorrow if possible.
- B Moderate Priority, important but not urgent, or urgent but only moderately important, do only if time available.
- C Low Priority, neither important nor urgent, or something that is the responsibility of someone in another unit.

Things To Check into Yourself

Responsibilities to Delegate (to Whom?)

Meetings or Appointments for Tomorrow (with Whom?)

Telephone Calls (to Whom about What?)

Memos, Letters, or Notes to Write (to Whom, about What?)

Note: Please complete the post workshop assignment and return to the Facilitator within five days of the workshop. You have been provided with a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience. Thank you for your participation.

Post Workshop Assignment: In-Basket Exercise

1. Memo from Barbara Sawyer, one of your sales representatives, asking for permission to attend a one-day course at corporate headquarters explaining the features of the new model of the copying machine. The course is next week, and she needs to have a decision by Monday. She notes that two other sales representatives from your office will be attending the course.
2. Letter from a major customer complaining about quality defects in the Model 1140 copier they purchased this year.
3. Note from your secretary reminding you that the monthly sales report is due at corporate headquarters this coming Wednesday.
4. Memo from Sharon Maroni, one of the sales representatives, asking for her company car to be replaced by a new one. Ever since it was rammed by a truck last month, the car keeps breaking down, leaving her stranded in remote areas.
5. Memo from the vice president for human resources, asking you to recommend somebody as a candidate for the new regional office in Alabama and provide background information on the person's qualifications. He wants each regional manager to identify the most promising candidate in his or her region. this information is needed in two weeks.
6. Note from your assistant manager requesting a meeting with you to discuss a new marketing proposal.
7. Note from your secretary informing you that your boss called and scheduled a meeting on Tuesday of next week to decide what the sales goals will be for your region.
8. Memo to all regional managers from the sales vice president requesting them to gather information about reasons for the recent decline in sales of Model 1140 copiers. The subject will be discussed at the meeting of regional managers in two weeks.
9. Memo from Lloyd Denton, one of your office staff, complaining about the parking situation. Since the expansion of the production facility into the employee parking lot, there are no longer enough spaces. The production employees start work earlier in the morning, and all the spaces are gone by the time the sales staff arrive. Parking is the responsibility of the facilities and maintenance manager.

10. Telephone message from a sales representative -- Tom Jones -- saying that a major corporation will order a large quantity of printers if we make some modifications. Tom wants to know if the changes are feasible and if the company is willing to make them. Call him back for details.
11. Letter from bank requesting verification of employment for one of your office staff. Employment verifications are handled by personnel.
12. Telephone message from George Palmer, one of your sales representatives, asking you to check into reasons for delay in delivery of printers to a customer who is threatening to cancel the order. Delivery is the responsibility of the distribution manager.
13. Letter from local resident complaining about the noise from the plant.
14. Memo from the training director at corporate headquarters, suggesting development of a training program for office staff in the new computer program being developed for processing orders.
15. Letter from a customer expressing appreciation that one of the sales representatives -- Joe Owens -- was so helpful in solving a technical problem for them.
16. Memo from the headquarters marketing department with a sample brochure attached for your review. No deadline given. it usually takes about half an hour to review a brochure and write comments.
17. Letter from an important customer inquiring about prices on the new FAX machines to be introduced next month.
18. Telephone message from a sales representative -- Gwen Gordon -- asking you to look into a mistake involving her health care benefits.
19. Expense authorization from a sales representative for your approval and signature. These forms are forwarded to accounting with your signature, and a copy remains in your sales office.
20. Telephone note about a call from a business reporter at a local paper wanting to interview you about the company's new FAX machine.

Twenty-five Common Business Terms In Common Language

Authority:

A company's gift to its managers -- to be used or abused. What enables them to take action on behalf of their company and to compel others to take action too. With authority comes responsibility. The more widespread is authority throughout an organization, the more widespread its responsibility (Hindle, 1994).

Benchmarking:

Improving competitive position through a deliberate attempt to emulate and surpass what is considered to be world-class performance in important competitive activities. Successful benchmarking includes identifying: (a) what to benchmark - choose activities that are crucial to competitive advantage; (b) who to benchmark; (c) a measurement for your performance; and (d) specific programs and practices to adopt and developing an implementation plan (Hindle, 1994).

Brainstorming:

A technique in use for over 50 years in which a number of people get together in an unstructured setting and attempting to come up with new ideas or new solutions to problems. The first aim is to generate as many ideas as possible; only later (or maybe even at a different session) are the ideas in any evaluated (Hindle, 1994).

Clarifying Roles and Objectives:

Assigning tasks, providing directions in how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations (Yukl, 1989).

Decision-making:

Obtaining some agreement among group members as to which of several courses of action is most desirable for achieving the group's goals. The process through which groups identify problems in achieving the group's goals and attain solutions to them (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Delegation:

The process of transferring authority from one person to another. Delegation once had connotations of "passing the buck," but it is now seen as a key part of the process of empowerment (Hindle, 1994).

Empowerment:

The process of moving power, information, and rewards downward in the organization. Empowering people literally gives them the power to do something, and as a result they become more responsible and cooperative (Hindle, 1994).

Goal:

A desired place toward which people are working, a state of affairs that people value (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Informing:

Disseminating relevant information about decisions, plans, and activities to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, answering requests for technical information, and telling people about the organizational unit to promote its reputation (Hindle, 1994).

Leadership:

This is either corporate strategy in which a firm aims to be the leader in a particular market, or it is a human quality that differentiates a chief executive from the most junior accountant. There is one essential difference between leaders and managers; for good managers, systems and structures are all important; good leaders are unconventional and work outside systems, relying on a lot of intuition and at least a little inspiration. Decentralization makes the task of developing leaders that much easier because it creates plenty of jobs within the organization that require qualities of leadership (Hindle, 1994).

Long-range Planning:

Companies used to spend much effort devising complicated corporate plans that tried to look way into the future. Such detailed long-term planning is currently out of favor. This is not only because of a growing realization of the futility of such planning in a world where change is occurring ever more quickly. It has also been influenced by a change of attitude toward planning itself -- a switch to the identification of wide general trends a belief that line management should assume responsibility for its own planning (Hindle, 1994).

Monitoring Operations and Environment:

Gathering information about the progress and quality of work activities, the success or failure of activities or projects, and the performance of individual contributors, also, determining the needs of clients or users, and scanning the environment to detect threats and opportunities (Yukl, 1989).

Objectives:

These are the medium-term goals toward which a company strives. At their best, objectives help employees attain levels of performance that they did not believe they were capable of. Objectives also provide yardsticks by which a firm can measure its success in fulfilling a strategy (Hindle, 1994).

Operational Goals:

Goals for which specific steps to achievement are clear and identifiable (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Planning and Organizing:

Determining long-range objectives and strategies for adapting to environmental change, identifying necessary action steps to carry out a project or activity, allocating resources among activities according to priorities, and determining how to improve efficiency, productivity, and coordination with other parts of the organization (Yukl, 1989).

Problem-solving:

Identifying work-related problems, analyzing problems in a systematic but timely manner to determine causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions and deal with crises (Yukl, 1989).

Resource Allocation:

The process of deciding how to spread cooperative financial resources among various businesses. This was especially complicated in the heyday of the diversified corporation when models like the "growth share" was developed. In today's more integrated corporation these decisions still need to be made. The outright competition between businesses or functions, however, has been replaced by a more cooperative approach (Hindle, 1994).

Scenario Planning:

The business of drawing up the background "noise" against which an individual company's strategy is to be played out. Everything in the future is uncertain; but for the purposes of formulating strategy, certain macroeconomic, social, and scientific assumptions have to be made. Rather than rely on a single set of assumptions, scenario planning evaluates the impact of a number of different sets of assumptions, often categorized as "best case" and "worst case." The process enables managers to think more realistically about their response to an uncertain future. Big companies have spent much effort in creating computer-based systems that can generate different scenarios on the basis of different assumptions. Against these different backgrounds, different strategies can be painted. Scenario planning was developed by the oil company Royal Dutch/Shell at a time when the military strategic model was being discredited. Creating a single plan to be followed with military precision simply did not work in the real business world (Hindle, 1994).

Strategic Planning:

A process for drawing up a company's strategic map, the route whereby it will provide products for customers, where, and at what price. The person who virtually invented strategic planning was Igor Ansoff, an engineer who worked for Lockheed as a long-term planner. At one point, strategic planning existed as a separate function in many large corporations. This led to the criticism that the strategic plan was imposed from on high and led to half-hearted implementation. Now divisions are usually responsible for their own strategic plan (Hindle, 1994).

Strategy:

A general policy for achieving a number of specified objectives. As Michael Porter once put it, "The word global, like the word strategy, has become overused and perhaps misunderstood." The word came originally from a Greek word meaning generalship, and until recently, it had a very specific military meaning: the art of planning and conducting war (Hindle, 1994).

Synergy:

The action of two or more organisms working together to achieve an effect of which each is independently incapable of achieving.

Turnaround Time:

The amount of time that it takes to get a particular job done from the moment it is begun and finished. It can apply to something as simple as the unloading of a truck, or as complicated as the manufacture of a high-fashion garment--from the time it is ordered to the time that it is delivered to the buyer's premises (Hindle, 1994).

Vision:

A necessary part of any strategy--an irrational barrier-leaping ambition for a company. First find your vision, then devise a strategy to achieve it (Hindle, 1994).

Window of Opportunity:

A strategy's effectiveness can depend entirely on timing--there are right times and wrong times to take certain steps. New products are launched only at certain seasons and there are good and bad times for going to the stock market with a new issue (Hindle, 1994).

Modified Transcript From Video Presentation

Much has been written about participative management, consultative management --is it being transmitted to the federal government level?

Panelist 1: I am a very strong believer in participative management and consultative management. The process here involves getting everybody to get buy-in. Buy-in into the vision, the goals of the division or department of your organization. If you have everybody coming together participating, developing the goals and then understanding what the goals are, then you can create an environment where everybody understands what they have to do to achieve those goals. As a leader, you want to foster an environment where there is definitely participation and everybody shares in the reward for accomplishing those goals.

How has setting goals helped to organize your day?

Panelist 2: Well, fortunately, in the kind of position I'm in the kind of goal I set is to get through the day!! I do try, however, to set goals for my organization. It is not possible for me to have any other goal than to have a successful day. But I do believe that goal setting is very important. It is critical to charting the direction in knowing where you want to go.

Planning and organizing was rated the top leadership skill identified by a cadre of women such as yourselves that leaders need to develop. Give us an idea of how your day runs, do you plan much of it or is a lot of it spontaneous?

Panelist 3: I can understand why planning and organizing would come out on top of the list for those who are looking for leadership development. If you are not organized, and you don't know what you want to accomplish, then you'll never know when you have accomplished anything. That is a part of what I do on a day-to-day basis. I do establish some kind of pattern of what I want to happen. But, at the same time, I realize that I can't always pre-plan everything. There has to be enough flexibility in my day where I can accommodate the unplanned things that come up. But, overall, I think there is an informal kind of planning that takes place just because you have the skills and you know where you want to go. You perform this rather intuitively and you really don't think of it as an organized plan of action. But, a good leader would have developed those skills along the way. The way you organize, helps to motivate others to get where you want or need to go. It certainly helps you to realize what you need to change about what's happening.

Panelist 2: Planning and organizing are critical skills. And I think they are even more critical on a macro-level as opposed to a day-to-day micro-level. For instance, I have to plan and organize where I want my organization to go, then on a day-to-day basis, I work to make certain that the things I am doing [daily] are leading towards that ultimate goal. But, having those planning and organizing skills gives you the ability to conceptualize what it is you want your organization to accomplish. Following that, you must be able to organize the pieces that

necessary for that to happen. Those are critical skills that you need even though you may not be able to see what is happening on an hourly or daily basis in any given week.

Panelist 1: In the business that I am in, we could not survive without planning and organizing. That means revenue to us. If we didn't plan and organize to get the work out; we wouldn't be paid. We provide a service for our customers and if we do not plan the work flow; and if we aren't organized, then we don't get paid! So, if we put it in the vein of dollars and cents, then [planning and organizing] becomes very important.

Panelist 3: Its fundamental and something that must be done and done well. And it must be part of what you consider as your responsibility to accomplish any goal you set for yourself as well as your agency.

Let's talk about the second most important skill which is clarifying roles and objectives. Why would you believe that came in second or next to planning and organizing?

Panelist 1: Because once you have your goals set and you have planned and organized how you will go about achieving those goals, everybody needs to understand how you will go about achieving those goals. You want them to be clearly and precisely understood. When you are talking about participative management...everybody may not be able to see how their part fits. But the employee must understand the importance of their part and how what they do affects someone else. What happens to someone else may affect something else down the line of the work flow. So, everybody has to understand what their role is and what happens before and after them. Therefore, its important that roles must be very clearly defined.

Panelist 2: I also think that its important in helping people understand how they are contributing toward making something happen. For instance, if people aren't sure what role they play in bringing something to completion, they are less than enthusiastic about doing it. If they feel as if their piece is just a piece, in a vacuum; and it just doesn't matter what happens before or afterwards, they are less likely to do that well. They are also less likely to take pride in what they are doing. But, if they can understand the contribution that their part makes to whatever it is you are trying to accomplish, then it makes for a much more productive employee at whatever they are doing.

So, we are saying ownership? Do you see that happening?

Panelist 3: Absolutely! One of the things we have focused upon in recent years is empowering people to do things--to take control--to give them authority to do the things they can at the level where they are. I think with this whole concept of roles clarification, expectations and empowering, people tend to have buy-in to the whole mission a little bit more. Mainly because they have a sense of accomplishment. They know what they are striving for and can see what they are

doing fits into the overall vision for the agency. I think its essential to continue to inspire people to live to their fullest potential. When you clarify the roles, everybody can evaluate his or her performance. You certainly have a better picture of the overall goal or vision--where you want to go.

The third most important skill was decision-making. Why do you believe decision-making came in third?

Panelist 1: All through the work process, you have to make decisions. As we have said, those decisions affect not only you but the overall goal of the organization. They affect what someone else is doing in the organization. I think they are so closely related because we have seen in the work environment now that its very difficult to separate things anymore. Decision-making goes along with planning and organizing; its a part of the process and work flow.

Are most of your decisions made in a consultative manner; do you bring in your staff, but knowing ultimately that you are the leader?

Panelist 3: It depends on what I am doing; where I am working. But, to address why it came in third--I think its because we work for the government. Many of us do not see ourselves as decision-makers because we don't take into account those day-to-day decisions that we make as we move from point A to point B. We think about the ultimate decisions made at higher levels. But I do consult a lot. I depends on my employees to use their skills--to bring to me their expert knowledge. Because as a manager, I feel that my job is to direct, to oversee, to give guidance and focus and to then let them make decisions at their levels. But I also believe that it is my ultimate responsibility to make sure that the decisions made incorporates all of the needs of the organization and the goals. I will look at the whole while they may be only looking at the part they are involved in. So, I spend a lot of time working with my employees in consultation. I encourage them to challenge me--to discuss things with me. We play devil's advocate. We THINK! I believe that thinking skills are very critical when making decisions. A leader must think through the whole issue before coming to a final decision. So much though has to go into the impact the decision will have; not only on that issue, but others that may be possibly affected by it? So, I do a little consultation. But, ultimately, I do feel comfortable that when I have made a decision, that its the best decision that I can make given the information available.

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Appendix E

Needs Assessment Survey-Questionnaire

DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP: A Model Leadership Development Training Program Needs Assessment Survey

PLEASE READ ALL COMMENTS BEFORE COMPLETING EACH PART OF THE SURVEY. This needs assessment survey has four sections which seek to determine the managerial behavior skill structures associated with the development of a model leadership training program for African American women. Please answer each of the following questions and complete the survey sequentially.

SECTION ONE asks about your background. Please complete this section thoroughly. All individual responses are held in the strictest of confidence. Be sure to check the appropriate box below to indicate your desire to participate as a Project Role Model.

- (1) Location of your Position: ☐ Headquarters ☐ Field
- (2) Number Employees You Supervise: ☐ Less than 100 ☐ More than 100
- (3) Service Status: ☐ Careerist ☐ Non-Careerist ☐ Political Appointee
- (4) Appointed/Selected SES: ☐ 1980-85 ☐ 1986-1990 ☐ 1991-94
- (5) Government Entry Grade Level: ☐ GS-1-6 ☐ GS-7-12 ☐ GS-13 and above
- (6) Education: ☐ High School ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's
☐ Doctorate ☐ J.D.
- (7) Age: ☐ 25-35 ☐ 36-45 ☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-65 ☐ 66 and older
- (8) Marital Status: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Separated
- (9) Children: ☐ Yes ☐ No

Would you be willing to participate as a Project Role Model? ☐ Yes ☐ No

SECTION TWO asks you to review the following list of managerial behavior skill structures; and based upon the definition provided, distinguish the level of intrinsic and extrinsic value for each managerial behavior skill structure below. Indicate your response for *Intrinsic* value by circling a number from 1 (low) to 5 (high); and for *Extrinsic* value using the numbers 6 (low) to 10 (high).

Note: *Intrinsic*: a factor perceived as having inherent reward or value rather than behavior performed for external value. *Extrinsic*: a factor perceived as having external reward or value rather than behavior performed for inherent value.

Building and Maintaining Relationships

1. *Networking*: Socializing informally, developing contacts with people who are a source of information and support and maintaining relationships through periodic interaction, including visits, telephone calls, and correspondence, and attendance at meetings and social events.

----- Intrinsic ----- Extrinsic -----
 1.....2.....3.....4.....5...||...6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 low high low high

2. *Supporting*: Acting friendly and considerate, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset, listening to complaints and problems, looking out for someone's interests, providing helpful career advice, doing things to aid someone's career advancement.

----- Intrinsic ----- Extrinsic -----
 1.....2.....3.....4.....5...||...6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 low high low high

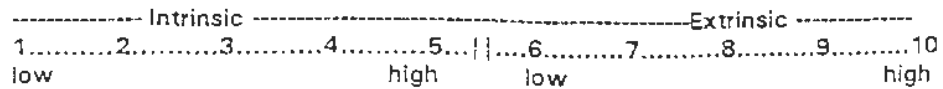
3. *Managing Conflict and Team Building*: Encouraging and facilitating constructive resolution of conflict, fostering teamwork and cooperation, and building identification with the organizational unit or team.

----- Intrinsic ----- Extrinsic -----
 1.....2.....3.....4.....5...||...6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 low high low high

4. *Dealing with Racism*: Appreciating cultural diversity and the ethnic heritage of others, and helping other minority members to realize their potential and to contribute to the best of their ability.

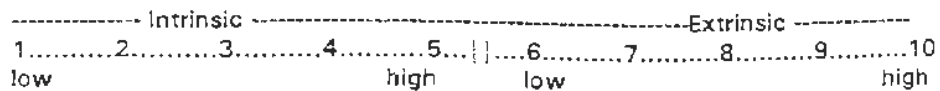
----- Intrinsic ----- Extrinsic -----
 1.....2.....3.....4.....5...||...6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 low high low high

5. *Dealing with Sexism:* Forming alliances within social groups of women to resist stereotyping in non-traditional fields and roles, promoting positive beliefs about feminine traits and behaviors by facilitating the access and socialization of women in the workplace.

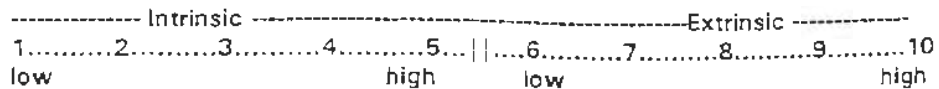


Influencing People

6. *Motivating:* Using influence techniques that appeal to emotions, values, or logic to generate enthusiasm for the work and commitment to task objectives, or to induce someone to carry out a request for support, cooperation, assistance, resources, or authorization; also setting example of proper behavior by one's own actions.

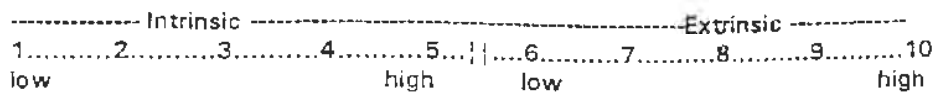


7. *Recognizing and Rewarding:* Providing praise, recognition, and tangible rewards for effective performance, significant accomplishments, and special contributions; expressing respect and appreciation for someone's accomplishments.

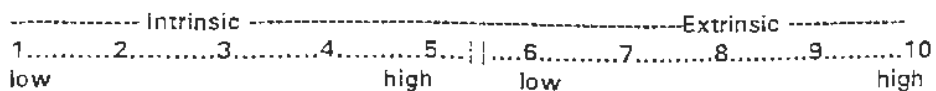


Making Decisions

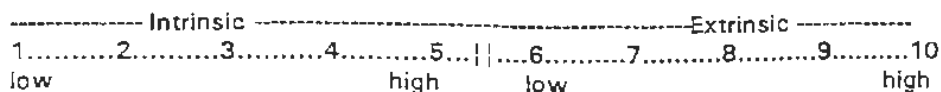
8. *Planning and Organizing:* Determining long-range objectives and strategies for adapting to environmental change, identifying necessary action steps to carry out a project or activity, allocating resources among activities according to priorities, and determining how to improve efficiency, productivity, and coordination with other parts of the organization.



9. *Problem-solving:* Identifying work-related problems, analyzing problems in a systematic but timely manner to determine causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions and deal with crises.

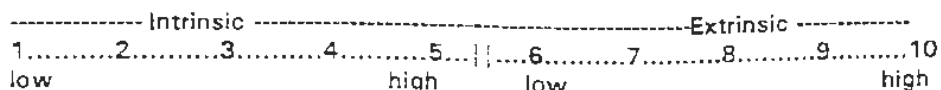


10. *Risk-taking*: Making decisions and initiating actions which minimizes routinization of organizational functions; encouraging others and self to step out of the ordinary despite less predictable outcomes.

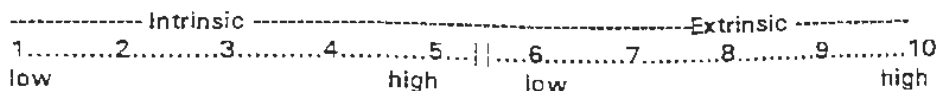


Collecting and Disseminating Information

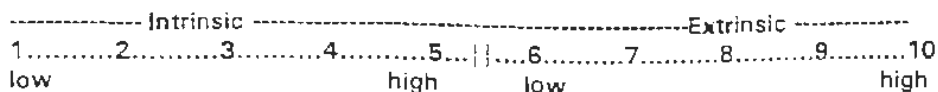
11. *Consulting and Delegating*: Checking with people before making changes that affect them, encouraging suggestions for improvement, inviting participation in decision making, incorporating the ideas and suggestions of others in decisions, and allowing others to have substantial discretion in carrying out work activities and handling problems.



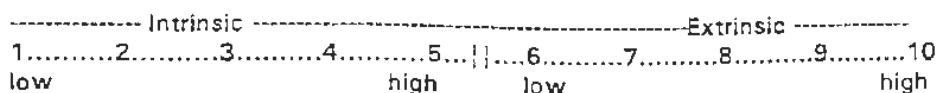
12. *Monitoring Operations and Environment*: Gathering information about the progress and quality of work activities, the success or failure of activities or projects, and the performance of individual contributors, also, determining the needs of clients or users, and scanning the environment to detect threats and opportunities.



13. *Informing*: Disseminating relevant information about decisions, plans, and activities to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, answering requests for technical information, and telling people about the organizational unit to promote its reputation.



14. *Clarifying Roles and Objectives*: Assigning tasks, providing directions in how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations.



SECTION THREE asks you to rank in terms of importance to you the managerial behavior skill structures for leadership development. The managerial behavior skill structure most important should be listed first. Note: 1 is high and 14 is low.

- (a) **Networking** _____
- (b) **Supporting** _____
- (c) **Managing Conflict and Team Building** _____
- (d) **Dealing with Racism** _____
- (e) **Dealing with Sexism** _____
- (f) **Motivating** _____
- (g) **Recognizing and Rewarding** _____
- (h) **Planning and Organizing** _____
- (i) **Problem-Solving** _____
- (j) **Risk-taking** _____
- (k) **Consulting and Delegating** _____
- (l) **Monitoring Operations and Environment** _____
- (m) **Informing** _____
- (n) **Clarifying Roles and Objectives** _____

CONSENT FORM FOR PROJECT PARTICIPATION

Project Title: **DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP: The Design, Implementation and Evaluation of a Model Leadership Training Program for African American Women**

I am over 18 years of age, in good physical health, and wish to participate in the research project being conducted by Martha W. Williams at the Department of Education, Graduate School, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland.

I understand that:

- (1) the PURPOSE of this research is to measure my knowledge of, and attitude toward Managerial Behavior Skill Structures associated with leadership development of African American women;
- (2) the PROCEDURES consist of the administration of a needs assessment survey and the performance of a statistical analysis of the total responses of all respondents to the needs assessment survey instrument;
- (3) all information collected in the study is strictly CONFIDENTIAL as to individual responses to the survey questions, and that my name will not be identified at any time. However, if I so choose, I may participate as a Project Role Model and give the consent for the use of my name and permission to be interviewed;
- (4) by participating in this study, I AM AT NO RISK, either physically, emotionally, psychologically, or economically;
- (5) the research is not designed to help me personally, but by conducting this survey the investigator hopes to learn more about how to assess the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that pertain to leadership development of African American women; and
- (6) that I AM FREE AT ANY TIME TO ASK QUESTIONS AND/OR WITHDRAW FROM THE RESEARCH PROJECT WITHOUT ANY PENALTY.

FACULTY ADVISOR:
ADDRESS:

Dr. Neil Davidson (301) 405-3147
Curriculum and Instruction Department
Benjamin Building, University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland 20742

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Appendix F

Dimensions of Leadership: "Planning and Organizing" Pretest-Posttest

Name: _____ Date: _____ Grade: _____

Instructions: Provided below are ten (10) incomplete sentences. Please circle the best answer when responding to the following. Only one answer is the best. You may refer to the operational definition when formulating your answer.

Operational Definition

Planning and organizing: Determining long-range objectives and strategies for adapting to environmental change, identifying necessary action steps to carry out a project or activity, allocating resources among activities according to priorities, and determining how to improve efficiency, productivity, and coordination with other parts of the organization.

1. Planning is a _____ behavior.
 - a. reactive
 - b. proactive
 - c. reflective
 - d. supportive
2. As a process, planning and organizing is at best _____.
 - a. formal and explicit
 - b. informal and implicit
 - c. formal and adaptive
 - d. informal and adaptive
3. Planning is largely a cognitive activity which does not involve _____.
 - a. information
 - b. analyzing
 - c. rewarding
 - d. deciding
4. _____ is a process for detailing action steps and schedules for implementing a change or policy.
 - a. Operational planning
 - b. Basic planning
 - c. Potential planning
 - d. Strategic planning
5. _____ is a process for determining specific objectives and broad policies for the organization.
 - a. Operational planning
 - b. Basic planning
 - c. Potential planning
 - d. Strategic planning

6. Planning includes _____ which is a design of formal structure.
 - a. organizing
 - b. strategizing
 - c. resourcing
 - d. allocating

7. _____ is the determination of when each step in the action plan should start and end.
 - a. Timing
 - b. Scheduling
 - c. Planning
 - d. Sequencing

8. To determine the starting and ending date of a planned activity or step, it is best to start at the _____.
 - a. first item in the sequence
 - b. last item in the sequence
 - c. most time consuming task or step
 - d. most important item in the sequence

9. A general rule for carrying out a specific task could be estimated by time _____ for planning and _____ implementation (execution).
 - a. 60 percent and 40 percent
 - b. 50 percent and 50 percent
 - c. 80 percent and 20 percent
 - d. 30 percent and 70 percent

10. When an employee's commitment to the action planned is questioned, you should _____.
 - a. make adjustments as necessary
 - b. give a deadline that is earlier than necessary
 - c. take appropriate action to make the replacement
 - d. help to complete the project step or task

Instructions: Provided below are examples of effective and ineffective leadership behavior. The first three items are examples of effective behavior, and the last three are examples of ineffective behavior. Identify which depicts the best example of effective planning and organizing and which depicts the best example of ineffective planning and organizing behavior.

11. Effective Planning and Organizing Behavior
 - _____ (a) Establishes performance goals for important aspects of the work.
 - (b) Determines in advance what resources are needed to carry out a task or project.
 - (c) Asks others for their ideas and suggestions before making an important decision.

12. Ineffective Planning and Organizing Behavior

- _____ (a) Asks for suggestions, then makes an arbitrary decision that ignores the suggestions.
- (b) Fails to follow up to verify that a requested action step in the plan was carried out.
- (c) Refuses to revise a plan that is not working well

Instructions: Please review the definitions and statements below. In 13, select the best definition for the leadership planning and implementation role. In 14, select the best statement for the leadership planning and implementation role.

13. _____ (a) Makes sure all employees understand what each other says or wants to do.
- (b) Calls attention to tasks that need to be done and assigns responsibilities.
- (c) Encourages employees to work hard to achieve goals.

14. (a) "Before we go on, let me tell you how other employees have solved this task.
- (b) "I think we'd find a good solution if we put a little more work into it."
- (c) "We seem to be suggesting solutions before we're ready. Let's define the problem first.

Instructions: Please review the following list and determine the order of the planning implementation process.

15. _____ (a) implementation solution
- _____ (b) analyzing problem
- _____ (c) selecting and planning solution
- _____ (d) identifying and selecting problem
- _____ (e) evaluating solution
- _____ (f) generating potential solutions

Appendix G

Dimensions of Leadership: "Planning and Organizing" Workshop Evaluation Form

Name: _____ Date: _____ Grade: _____

Please evaluate the workshop on "Planning and Organizing" using the rating scale provided below. Draw a circle around the numerical description that best reflects your perceptions. Note: 5 is the highest rating and indicates Strongly Agree, and 1 is the lowest rating and indicates Strongly Disagree.

Part I:

		Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagrees
A.	The subject and objectives of the workshop were clearly presented.	5	4	3	2 1
B.	The content of the workshop was useful in achieving the objectives.	5	4	3	2 1
C.	The materials were useful in achieving the objectives.	5	4	3	2 1
D.	The lectures were clearly presented and understandable.	5	4	3	2 1
E.	New words and terms were clearly explained and related to the objectives.	5	4	3	2 1
F.	The information was appropriate for leadership development and training.	5	4	3	2 1
G.	The training method or approach was appropriate and useful.	5	4	3	2 1
H.	The video (visual representation of the task) was appropriate.	5	4	3	2 1
I.	A good, clear and specific summary (strong conclusion) was provided.	5	4	3	2 1
J.	The entire workshop was the appropriate length.	5	4	3	2 1
K.	The materials related to real life experiences.	5	4	3	2 1

- L. The workshop information will be valuable to my organization. 5 4 3 2 1
- M. The facilitator was well prepared. 5 4 3 2 1
- N. The facilities (or logistics) were conducive to learning. 5 4 3 2 1

Part II:

- O. The aspect of the workshop that I liked most was

- P. The aspect of the workshop that I liked least was

- Q. Additional comments

- R. Overall, I rate this workshop:
Excellent ____ Good ____ Fair ____ Poor ____ No answer ____

Appendix H

Dimensions of Leadership: "Planning and Organizing" Interview-Questionnaire

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. What were the objectives of the workshop?

Able to recall: 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___

2. Did these objectives represent the true training need on your job for aspiring leaders?

not at all little medium amount well represented exactly

3. How well did the workshop achieve its goal?

not at all little satisfactory only very well exactly

4. What could be left out of the workshop?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

5. What could be added (include) to the workshop?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

6. What could be given less time?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

7. What could be given more time?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

8. Did you relate the workshop content to what you already know?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

9. Were you given sufficient opportunity to ask questions?

not at all little medium amount very much almost all

10. Are there any additional comments you feel are appropriate?

Appendix I

Post-workshop Assignment: In-Basket Exercise

Objective

To provide participants with practice in thinking about priorities and planning activities for the next day.

Procedure

"Assume you are a regional sales manager in a large corporation. You have been away on a business trip since Monday, and you have returned a day early. It is now 4:30 p.m. on Thursday, and you are in your office to look at your mail and plan some activities for the next day. Since you had expected to be away until Friday night, no meetings or appointments are scheduled for you at your office tomorrow. You have only half an hour to make your plans, because you have to meet your spouse for dinner. The company has three major product lines, and each product line has several different models. Your regional sales office is housed in a company facility that includes other regional departments (e.g., personnel, accounting, distribution, maintenance), a large production facility, and a warehouse for company products. Your boss is the sales vice president for the company, and his office is at corporate headquarters in another state. You have 20 sales representatives who report to you, and an office staff of five employees who process orders sent in by the sales representatives. In addition, you have an assistant sales manager and a secretary. Read through the items in your in-basket, then use the form to indicate the things you would plan to do tomorrow (Friday). Remember, you have only 30 minutes to make your plans. Please keep an accurate count of your time and record it on the form."

Instructions: Please respond to the following questions which relate to the in-basket exercise by indicating the corresponding number of each item. Note: A - High Priority, both important and urgent, do tomorrow if possible; B - Moderate Priority, important, but not urgent, or urgent but only moderately important, do only if time available; and C - Low Priority, neither important nor urgent, or something that is the responsibility of someone in another unit.

- (1) Things to Check Into Yourself
- (2) Responsibilities to Delegate (to whom?)
- (3) Meetings or Appointments for Tomorrow (with whom?)
- (4) Telephone Calls (to whom, about what?)
- (5) Memos, Letters, or Notes to Write (to whom, about what?)

1. Memo from Barbara Sawyer, one of your sales representatives, asking for permission to attend a one-day course at corporate headquarters explaining the features of the new model of the copying machine. The course is next week, and she needs to have a decision by Monday. She notes that two other sales representatives from your office will be attending the course.
2. Letter from a major customer complaining about quality defects in the Model 1140 copier they purchased this year.
3. Note from your secretary reminding you that the monthly sales report is due at corporate headquarters this coming Wednesday.
4. Memo from Sharon Maroni, one of the sales representatives, asking for her company car to be replaced by a new one. Ever since it was rammed by a truck last month, the car keeps breaking down, leaving her stranded in remote areas.
5. Memo from the vice president for human resources, asking you to recommend somebody as a candidate for the new regional office in Alabama and provide background information on the person's qualifications. He wants each regional manager to identify the most promising candidate in his or her region. This information is needed in two weeks.
6. Note from your assistant manager requesting a meeting with you to discuss a new marketing proposal.
7. Note from your secretary informing you that your boss called and scheduled a meeting on Tuesday of next week to decide what the sales goals will be for your region.
8. Memo to all regional managers from the sales vice president requesting them to gather information about reasons for the recent decline in sales of Model 1140 copiers. The subject will be discussed at the meeting of regional managers in two weeks.
9. Memo from Lloyd Denton, one of your office staff, complaining about the parking situation. Since the expansion of the production facility into the employee parking lot, there are no longer enough spaces. The production employees start work earlier in the morning, and all the spaces are gone by the time the sales staff arrive. Parking is the responsibility of the facilities and maintenance managers.
9. Telephone message from a sales representative -- Tom Jones -- saying that a major corporation will order a large quantity of printers if we make some modifications. Tom wants to know if the changes are feasible and if the company is willing to make them. Call him back for details.

11. Letter from bank requesting verification of employment for one of your office staff. Employment verifications are handled by personnel.
12. Telephone message from George Palmer, one of your sales representatives, asking you to check into reasons for delay in delivery of printers to a customer who is threatening to cancel the order. Delivery is the responsibility of the distribution manager.
13. Letter from local resident complaining about the noise from the plant.
14. Memo from the training director at corporate headquarters, suggesting development of a training program for office staff in the new computer program being developed for processing orders.
15. Letter from a customer, expressing appreciation for one of the sales representatives -- Joe Owens -- was so helpful in solving a technical problem for them.
16. Memo from headquarters marketing department with a sample brochure attached for your review. No deadline given. It usually takes about half an hour to review a brochure and write comments.
17. Letter from an important customer inquiring about prices on the new FAX machines to be introduced next month.
18. Telephone message from a sales representative -- Gwen Gordon -- asking you to look into a message involving her health care benefits.
19. Expense authorization from a sales representative for your approval and signature. These forms are forwarded to accounting with your signature, and a copy remains in your sales office.
20. Telephone note about a call from a business reporter at a local paper wanting to interview you about the company's new FAX machine.

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Appendix J

Dimensions of Leadership: "Planning and Organizing" Independent Observer Summative Evaluation Questionnaire

Please rate the preliminary workshop. Circle the most appropriate description as provided.

Part I:

1. The subject and objectives of the workshop were clearly presented.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
2. There was an adequate discussion about the goals and objectives of the field-test workshop.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
3. The content of the workshop was useful in achieving the objectives.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
4. All needed supplies assembled, course materials prepared and explained, where necessary.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
5. There was effective and stimulating motivation displayed by the facilitator?
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
6. The participants' involvement was sustained throughout the workshop.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
7. The materials were useful in achieving the objectives and relevant for the discussions.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
8. The lectures were clearly presented and understandable.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent

9. New words and terms were clearly explained and related to the objectives.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
10. The information was appropriate for leadership development and training.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
11. The visual aids reinforced the lesson and were utilized properly.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
12. The video segments of the Project Role Models corresponded with the lesson's objectives and/or learning tasks.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
13. The training method -- Direct Instruction was appropriate and useful.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
14. The materials related to real life experiences.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
15. The facilitator provided sufficient time to respond to participants' reactions and questions.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
16. The facilitator's timing was adequate from the beginning to ending, minimizing delays.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
17. A good, clear and specific summary was presented at the end of each phase.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent
18. The facilities (physical conditions, preparation of the rooms(s), logistics, etc.) were conducive to a learning atmosphere.
a. Poor b. Fair c. Good d. Above Average e. Excellent

Part II:

19. The aspect of the workshop that I liked most was

20. The aspect of the workshop that I liked least was

Q. Comments on how the workshop could be improved and in what areas:

Appendix K

Agreement Between Researcher and U.S. Office of Personnel Management Officials



United States
Office of
Personnel Management

Washington, DC 20415-0001

NOV 1 1994

U.S. Office of Personnel Management

PWSS:RH

Martha W. Williams
Post Office Box 91505
Washington, DC 20090-1505

Dear Ms. Williams:

This responds to your October 17th letter requesting distribution of materials for your survey of African American women who are members of the Federal Senior Executive Service (SES). These employees will be identified using the June 1994 Central Personnel Data File (CPDF). Materials to be provided are: one listing of employees by personnel office, address labels for these offices, and labels for surveyed employees. Since the CPDF does not contain employee addresses, surveys must be distributed through personnel offices. Employee labels will be affixed to the questionnaire envelopes which we will send to the personnel offices for distribution. No employee names or social security numbers will be provided directly to you. You will need to provide us your survey materials in envelopes for each surveyed employee. We will also need an extra set of material for each personnel office. We will let you know the number of envelopes and extra materials needed, once the employment listing is made.

The estimated cost for providing these materials is \$922. This cost does not include postage and other distribution costs, which will be known after the exact quantity of envelopes needed is determined. Our regulations governing service charges for information state: "If OPM estimates or determines that fees are likely to exceed \$250, OPM may require the payment of applicable fees in advance." Thus, in order for work to proceed on this extract, please send a signed letter of request (addressed to me, Room 7494) along with a check payable to the U.S. Office of Personnel Management for \$922.

If you have any questions, please contact Mr. Robert Heim at (202) 606-1909.

Sincerely,

John E. Curnow
Acting Assistant Director
for Workforce Information
Personnel Systems and Oversight Group

11/1/94
I agree to the terms
of this agreement, delivered
on this day, a Signet Bank
money order in the full amount
of \$922.00. Thanks,
Martha W. Williams

CON 11-24-3
May 1993

Appendix L

Cover Letter Accompanying Needs Assessment Survey-Questionnaire From the Researcher

November 1, 1994

Dear Participant:

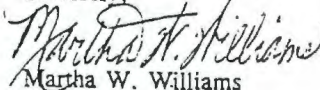
Over the past several years, African American women have managed to move into the federal senior executive service level, but the gains have been modest. Leadership training is one important way in which African American women can enhance their advancement opportunities. Yet, little attempt has been made to understand how African American women become leaders. Fewer efforts have been undertaken to describe the skills, abilities and competencies which may be unique to the development of African American women leaders.

I propose to develop, implement and evaluate a model leadership training program specifically geared for African American women. The development of this model program serves as my dissertation research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the doctor of philosophy degree from the University of Maryland at College Park. This dissertation study calls for a needs assessment to be completed by African American women, who, like you are members of the Federal Senior Executive Service. By completing the attached survey, you will play a pivotal role in determining what skills, knowledge and attitudes are essential for African American women to possess when aspiring to leadership positions. Your *name* as well as your responses will be used for this study only and are *confidential*.

In addition, several African American women leaders participating in this study may be asked to serve as Project Role Models. These women will be interviewed and videotaped. Here, the Project Role Models shall provide specific examples of real-life situations relative to the curriculum topic, leadership competencies and attributes that will drive the subsequent development and evaluation of this model training program. Later, a pilot study and a field testing of the model leadership development training program will be conducted for African American women currently employed at the GS-13 to GS-15 grade levels.

If you decide to participate as a Project Role Model, kindly check the appropriate box on the enclosed survey. Please return your survey in the stamped envelope no later than *November 18, 1994*. If you have questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address above or on 202-707-6024 during the hours of 8:00 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. Monday through Friday. Thank you in advance for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,



Martha W. Williams

Enclosures

Appendix M

Modified Transcript of Project Role Models' Interview
Washington, D. C.
January 12, 1995

How do you define leadership?

Panelist 1: I define leadership in the vein of providing direction, not so much in giving direction, but providing an atmosphere or environment that fosters a clear path for people to take with clear direction.

How does that definition distinguish or differentiates from what you believe the African American woman leader would be?

Panelist 3: I don't think that it differentiates or changes at all with the African American woman. Its very important that direction be set. But, in addition, I believe that a true leader would also visualize where they want to go. They would have a vision, which is shared with those they are trying to lead. A good leader would also be responsible for not only charting the direction, but setting the example.

When you are talking about the African American woman leader, she has been described as transformational, visionary. How has being a visionary, or are you a visionary, and has that help you?

Panelist 2: Well, I do believe, I'm something of a visionary. If I could just build upon something about the definition. I also think the leader is responsible for providing a climate for building a team. This means that you have to take individuals from different backgrounds, different interests with their personal goals and to help mold them into a well-working team sharing common goals and visions. I believe that it is necessary to have something for people to aspire to. A goal for them to accomplish something. In that way, I think its important to be a visionary, if you are going to be a good leader.

So much has been written about participative management, consultative management and it seems that we are seeing more and more of that in the government. You have a private industry background, panelist 1. How have you seen it as you have transited to the federal government?

Panelist 1: I am a very strong believer in participative management and consultative management. The process here involves getting everybody to get buy-in. Buy-in into the vision, the goals of the division or department of your organization. If you have everybody coming together participating, developing the goals and then understanding what the goals are, then you can create an environment where everybody understands what has to be done to achieve those goals. As a leader, you want to foster an environment where there is definitely participation and everybody shares in the reward for accomplishing those goals.

How has setting goals helped to organize your day?

Panelist 2: Well, unfortunately, in the kind of position I'm in the kind of goal I set is to get through the day! I do try, however, to set goals for my organization. It is not possible for me to have any other goal than to have a successful day. But I do believe that goal setting is very important. It is critical to charting the direction, in knowing where you want to go.

Planning and organizing was rated the top leadership skill identified by a cadre of women such as yourselves as the most important skill that African American women who are aspiring to leadership should develop. Give us an idea of how your day runs, do you plan much of it or is a lot of it spontaneous?

Panelist 3: I can understand why planning and organizing would come out on top of the list for those who are looking for leadership development. If you are not organized, and you don't know what you want to accomplish, then you'll never know when you have accomplished anything. That is a part of what I do on a day-to-day basis. I do establish some kind of pattern of what I want to happen. But, at the same time, I realize that I can't always pre-plan everything. There has to be enough flexibility in my day where I can accommodate the unplanned things that come up. But, overall, I think there is an informal kind of planning that takes place just because you have the skills and you know where you want to go. You perform this rather intuitively and you really don't think of it as an organized plan of action. But, a good leader would have developed those skills along the way. The way you organize, helps to motivate others to get where you want or need to go. It certainly helps you to realize what you need to change about what's happening.

Panelist 2: Planning and organizing are critical skills. And I think they are even more critical on a macro-level as opposed to a day-to-day micro-level. For instance, I have to plan and organize where I want my organization to go, then on a day-to-day basis, I work to make certain that the things I am doing [daily] are leading towards that ultimate goal. But, having those planning and organizing skills give you the ability to conceptualize what it is you want your organization to accomplish. Following that, you must be able to organize the pieces that are necessary for that to happen. Those are critical skills that you need even though you may not be able to see that happening on an hourly or daily basis in any given week.

Panelist 1: In the business that I am in, we could not survive without planning and organizing. That means revenue to us. If we didn't plan and organize to get the work out; we wouldn't be paid. We provide a service for our customers and if we do not plan the work flow; and if we aren't organized, then we don't get paid! So, if we put it in the vein of dollars and cents then [planning and organizing] becomes very important.

Panelist 3: Its fundamental and something that must be done and done well. And it must be part of what you consider as your responsibility to accomplish any goal you set for yourself as well as your agency.

Let's talk about clarifying roles and objectives.

Panelist 1: Because once you have your goals set and you have planned and organized how you will go about achieving those goals, everybody needs to understand what their roles are in achieving those goals. You want them to be clearly and precisely understood. When you are talking about participative management...everybody may not be able to see how their part fits. But the employee must understand the importance of their part and how what they do affects someone else. What happens to someone else may affect something else down the line of the work flow. So, everybody has to understand what their role is and what happens before and after them. Therefore, it's important that roles must be clearly defined.

Panelist 2: I also think that it's important in helping people understand how they are contributing toward making something happen. For instance, if people aren't sure what role they play in bringing anything to completion, they are less than enthusiastic about doing. If they feel as if their piece is just a piece in a vacuum; and it just doesn't matter what happens before or afterwards, they are less likely to do that well. They are also less likely to take pride in what they are doing. But, if they can understand the contribution that their part makes to whatever it is you are trying to accomplish then it makes for a much more productive employee at whatever they are doing.

So we are saying ownership? Do you see that happening?

Panelist 3: Absolutely! One of the things that we have focused upon in recent years is empowering people to do things--to take control--to give them authority to do the things that they can at the level where they are. I think with this whole concept of roles clarification, expectations and empowering, people tend to have buy-in to the whole mission a little bit more. Mainly because they have a sense of accomplishment. They know what they are striving for and can see what they are doing is fitting into the overall vision for the agency. I think it's essential to continue to inspire people to live to their fullest potential. When you clarify roles, everybody can evaluate his or her performance. You certainly have a better picture of the overall goal or vision--where you want to go.

Why would decision-making come in third place?

Panelist 1: All through the work process, you have to make decisions. As we have said, those decisions affect not only you but the overall goal of the organization as well. They affect what someone else is doing in the organization. I think they are so closely related because we have seen in the work environment now that it is very difficult to separate things anymore. Decision making goes along with planning and organizing; it's a part of the process and work flow.

Are most of your decisions made in a consultative manner; do you bring in your staff but knowing ultimately that you are the leader?

Panelist 3: It depends on what I am doing; where I am working. But, to address why it came in third--I think it's because we work for the government. Many of us do not see ourselves as decision-makers because we don't take into account those day-to-day decisions that we make as we move from point A to point B. We think about the ultimate decisions made at higher levels. But I do consult a lot. I depend

on my employees to use their skills--to bring to me their expert knowledge. Because as a manager, I feel that my job is to direct, to oversee, to give guidance and focus to then let them make decisions at their levels. But I also believe that it is my ultimate responsibility to make sure that the decisions made incorporates all of needs of the organization and the goals. I will look at the whole while they may be only looking at the part they are involved in. So, I spend a lot of time working with my employees in consultation. I encourage them to challenge me--to discuss things with me. We play devil's advocate. We THINK! I believe that thinking skills are very critical when making decisions. A leader must think through the whole issue before coming to a final decision. So much thought has to go into the impact the decision will have; not only on that issue, but others that may be possibly affected by it. So, I do a little consultation. But, ultimately, I do feel comfortable that when I have made a decision, that its the best decision I can make given the information available.

Panelist 2: My staff says that I make decisions quickly. Its important for a leader to understand that: (1) its an inherent part of their responsibility, and (2) no leader is going to every situation perfect in order to make the perfect decision. Making decisions not only comes with the responsibility, but also taking risks. I am a great believer in getting advice and consult people who I work with and for. But, in the end, you are the one who has to make the decision. You have to be willing to take a chance even though you may not have all of the data you want. And, you have to live with the decision. If it turns out to be the wrong one, admit it and make another decision.

Would you describe yourselves then as risk-takers?

Panelist 1: Yes! We have to be risk-takers, particularly in the business that I am in. We are developing products and services that people want. We take risks because we have to rely on other people to fulfill what we have said we are going to produce. Leaders direct the work, but you must risk that others will follow through correctly.

We have talked about three skills found important in the survey, what would you venture would be fourth important skill?

Panelist 3: Creating synergy among your staff, the people you are leading. A leader must develop rapport, inspiring your staff to do great things constantly. When people are working together as a group, everybody should feel as if they are contributing their part. So that when the project goes well, everyone has had a part in its outcome. Synergy is very important to getting things done well.

Panelist 2: Trust would be my fourth important skill. Trust works both ways. Your employees have to trust that you have their best interest at heart. When your staff sees that you are concerned about them both as employees and individuals, they become inspired. A good leader must create an atmosphere wherein people can aspire to go as far as they can go, and that you will be working with them to help accomplish that. So, a leader must contribute to the kind of team working with him or her.

Panelist 1: What it boils down to is treating people with dignity and respect. We want to create a positive environment where people are treated with respect.

Did you have a role model coming along? If so, tell us about your role model(s).

Panelist 1: In our generation, we had several role models, but at that time we may not have recognized them as role models. They were your parents, neighbors, Sunday school teachers, teachers, what have you. But they were always there being very supportive. At times they reprimanded you but you knew they cared. The reason we are successful is because we had excellent role models. However, they weren't classified as role models, they were our support groups.

Panelist 2: I think that once I embarked upon the workplace, there were individuals who didn't know that I was watching them and what they were doing. I did note the things that I thought they did which were good and bad. I certainly learned as much from the positive as I did from the negative. Some I recall most fondly because they inspired me. I didn't agree with everything, but that in and of itself was learning.

Panelist 3: I had an aunt who was an unmarried school teacher. She attended graduate school when I was young. On weekends, she would gather my family and community kids to her home. There we would work on projects and tasks according to our age group. She would reward us with small things, like candy, popcorn, movies and books. In fact, she subscribed to my favorite magazine. From her we learned that there are no limitations to what we wanted to become or achieve. Role models were abundant in my community. But, today we limit our concept of role models to those who have made financial gains. We need to seek people who can establish rapport, lead by examples, motivate you to achieve. I hope as a role model I have patterned myself according to the examples I saw in my teachers and family members.

Do you believe then that you are a role model?

Panelist 1: Definitely, because on a daily basis people are coming forward saying to us you are my role model. While it makes me feel good, it is also a tremendous challenge. When you are a leader, you are exposed. Someone else is looking at you. I try to tell those who have identified me as their role model to look for the good you see in me and take that good along with the good you've seen in others and use that to develop your own style. I tell them to take a good look at themselves and let's find, together their own style.

Panelist 2: Definitely! There are so many young black women in my agency who look to me for guidance and leadership. I joked with my staff that my name must be on bathroom wall somewhere and if you want to have a role model, call Sharon! But, I do take that seriously. When I do take on a mentoring relationship I am acutely aware of the importance it has on the other person's development. I also tell them to watch my style and then incorporate what's positive into their own style.

Panelist 3: Absolutely! I know that people are constantly watching me. I get far more requests to mentor than I can handle. It takes a lot of time and energy to mentor because you have to help set direction, explore options and opportunities. I tell them that when opportunities present themselves, you must be ready then to take advantage of them. I also tell them to be on their best behavior, think that you can achieve and then set a goal. I push them to reach higher and strive for more success. Throughout my career, others have returned to say to me that they emulated my style and how much I had inspired them. Some have returned to school or landed better jobs because of something they patterned after me. Its a tremendous feeling.

A leader, role model must have a high sense of self-confidence, self-efficacy. How is your sense of self-efficacy?

Panelist 1: It has to be great on a day-to-day basis. There are so many things that happen, so you must believe in yourself and your abilities. You are constantly being tested and you have to give 100%. Your level of self-confidence has to be high because you have to know what you are doing, do the job well and put together a staff that can do the job.

Panelist 2: I am very realistic about my capabilities. I am aware of the things that I want to achieve and want I need to improve upon. I am constantly assessing myself; however, I am not where I want to be. I stress to others that it is very important to have a realistic self-assessment. You may be able to fool people about what you can do, but please don't fool yourself. One must say, I can do better, I can improve and then work to become better.

Panelist 3: Having self-confidence means you recognize your weaknesses. For instance, when putting together a staff, I look for their strengths and weaknesses. I constantly let my staff know what I get from the relationship. I admonish people that if you are not happy where you are, not challenge, then move on. Setting higher goals will diminish a feeling of complacency. When you stop learning, you become ineffective.

How has being an African American woman leader, your race or sex, affected your leadership development?

Panelist 1: It has not affected the development so much as it has the day-to-day management. We are successful because we saw the opportunities, went after them and were just as qualified as others. We didn't see ourselves as different and they may have contributed to our success. Being African American and female may have held us back, but our own self-confidence and ability made all the difference.

Panelist 2: It at all, being African American made me work harder. There are always going to be situations where someone is skeptical or doubtful about your abilities, at least initially. But you must let them know that you are up to the challenge. In fact, it has made me work harder than I might have otherwise, just knowing that extra hurdle was there to overcome.

Panelist 3: People expect something different from you as an African American woman, but I realize the test is going to be harder. I often wonder what it would be like to wake up and not have to be reminded of the fact that I am a black woman. Its especially difficult when I attend meetings and I am the only one there. But, I think of myself as a good leader, capable of producing and getting things accomplished. I am aware that I might always have to prove myself again to someone else. But it makes me stronger, work harder. I am realistic about what's there, so I'm prepared. Its made me a better person.

Can we train African American women to become leaders, through courses, what would be beneficial?

Panelist 1: We must teach them good interactive, interpersonal and presentation skills. I come from a sales background, and boy, you never want them to see ya sweat! Its important to teach these skills because we must interface and get our ideas over. I hold monthly communications meetings to let my staff know what is going on. I coach and counsel them. But, certainly these skills and others can be taught and developed.

Panelist 2: The best thing that we can teach African American women or men, for that matter is that they must be realistic about what skills they have so they can be realistic about what skills they don't have. I become disappointed when I see people who want things immediately. They are not ready and have not demonstrated their capability to accomplish. Often they are not willing to work hard to achieve, to make themselves more competitive. I try to teach them to work hard and become a good employee.

Panelist 3: We can train them by being good role models exhibiting behaviors they would want to emulate. We can also talk about some of the barriers we faced or obstacles we overcame. We can tell them that life isn't always fair and sometime you move laterally, not up. We can explain that its not always in the financial rewards, particularly in being a leader. I advise them to know where they would want to go, show others your skills and then let people know it. Really, folks can't read your mind. You have to assert where you want to go and then opportunities will become available. In the alternative, folks may think you are satisfied where you are if you fail to speak up. Find out this, then sell your skills.

Finally, complete this sentence. To African American women aspiring to leadership positions, I would say...

Panelist 1: What are you really interested in? You must have something that is personally rewarding to you, as a good leader. Because you know in your heart and soul, its more than just a job when you are a leader. If I was starting again, I would have conducted a better self assessment. A good one let's you know what field or area you are best in.

Panelist 3: I would say go for it! Determine what you want to attain, goals to achieve and just like the commercial, just do it!

Panelist 2: My advice is that you may not always know from one day to the next where you want to go, but there is no substitute for hard work. I believe hard work has its rewards and that ultimately, people will recognize your abilities and provide opportunities.

Appendix N

Independent Observer's Clinical Notes Preliminary Field-test Workshop January 20, 1995

The subject and objectives were clearly presented in an excellent manner; however, there was not enough time given to inquire as to all participants' understanding of what their role would be during the workshop. Everyone responds better, becomes more involved when roles and expectations are delineated. A brief overview of the day's activities should be given. The agenda needs to be prominently displayed. Time adjustments must be made to allow for more discussion. I suggest a shorter lunch hour and breaks.

The content of the workshop was useful in achieving the objectives as stated. Try another method when introducing the course and the purpose of the workshop. I suggest that you combine this with the introduction of participants. Ask what do they expect from the course, then review the stated objectives, culling from each similarities or dissimilarities.

Another strategy may be to start the introductions with "give your name and what example you can think of that is effective or ineffective

planning. The participants suggested that you give "candy" or other prizes to the participant who suggests the most number of examples.

Include in your discussion that contingency planning is a subset of other planning strategies. However, the lecture phase was clear and understandable. The video segments of the project role models corresponded with the lesson's objectives and/or learning tasks. I thought the video was on key with what actually happens in the workplace or what should be occurring. In particular, the information provided by "Ruby" should be broken into smaller segments; its just too much to focus upon in a 10 minute showing. Ruby's discussion and ideas on leadership are superb. I suggest that you show the video in its entirety and then when necessary re-show or cue it to only those areas needed to reinforce your lecture.

You need to supply tent cards to help identify the participants. Also, you must remain aware of "silent" participants or non-participants; the talkers swallowed them up. Be cognizant of who's talking and who's not.

Although the terms you have supplied were clearly explained and relevant, such terms given by the

project role models need explaining. For instance, "Ruby" talked about "synergy" which needs to be defined and discussed.

The visual aids were useful and reinforced the lesson. Perhaps, you could redo the milestone chart. As it relates to the exercises, the group really liked the "Hidden Square" and "IX." This group liked numbers, by virtue of profession...others may not be as enthusiastic.

The training tool, direct instruction was perhaps the best approach. But, it does not give much room for adequate discussion during a short workshop. The model is an effective one. I felt that your timing was not adequate. There was not really sufficient time to deal with all of the questions. Try to delete the case study...its a good one, but time becomes your enemy!

However, I was most impressed with your impromptu questions. They were on target and really did spurred a lot of reaction. I noted that they were an attempt to pull in the "sleeper." Remember them for the main field-testing! I especially liked the question you posed about "which one of these women would you like to work for." The debate that followed was well worth the time spent in shortening the afternoon break.

The participants were also drawn into debate over your term for the "15th dimension of leadership." You used the term, "opportunistic" and they really found that undesirable. Some suggested that it denoted "manipulative" or "distasteful." They nor I have any suggestions to make, but "opportunistic" is not the best term.

The facilities were good and conducive to learning. Some complained about the break-out room, but I experienced no problems in that area. The main room could have been a little larger.

Overall, the workshop was excellent. Should you make these minor corrections or additions to the model workshop, the main field-testing should run even smoother.

Good Luck!

Appendix O

Independent Observer's Clinical Notes Main Field-test Workshop February 27, 1995

The model workshop was very enlightening and based upon participant reactions useful for both organizational and personal planning. The direct instruction model was a resourceful facilitation tool which guided the learning effort, providing a good mix of "hands-on" and lecture presentations. There was one interesting difference shown in the main field-testing which bears noting. That difference was the de-emphasizing given the independent practice phase. Immediate practice of the skills and feedback provided each participant an opportunity to direct and control their learning. Participants grasped the context of the practice drills at a faster rate than those in the pilot session. The video recaps used in the main field-test led to sustained, stimulating discussions. Using the video as an additional tool, promoted social learning by seeing and observing. The new video recap questions were more pertinent than those asked in the preliminary field-test. These questions led to more stimulating discussions.

Distributing the hand-outs when referenced averted problems participants might have experienced during the lecture phase. Overall, the materials were relevant and could be used immediately upon returning to duty. Several participants seemed to have concerns about the video segments. Some felt the information was staid; most of the project role models' advice seem contrived and typical. No new glaring "discoveries" or approaches to overcoming problems with planning and organizing were given by the project role models. But, reinforcement of the their comments were shown through the practice exercises, particularly the case study.

Despite a slow start, momentum built as the workshop progressed. Time adjustments were unavoidable since most participants were tardy, arriving during the pretest. This may have contributed to the slow beginning. However, the participant's were very enthusiastic and eager to respond to questions. In fact, the participants constantly brought to your attention how many questions he had incorrectly answered on the pretest. Overall, the participants seemed well satisfied with the model workshop.

The facility was convenient, accessible and comfortable. No major concerns were expressed by the participants regarding this issue. Using the wide screen had its disadvantages and advantages. Use of a wide screen to show the video as opposed to a television monitor resulted in blurred images and distorted audio, lessening visual quality. However, the use of this screen greatly enhanced the presentation of transparencies. The seating arrangement was appropriate. The large room accommodated the participants.

As my ratings will show, I believe the model workshop was well presented and enjoyed by each participant. You are to be greatly commended for your efforts. Good Luck!

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